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## A GRAMMAR

 OF THE
## PERSIAN LANGUAGE

## PARTI. ACCIDENCE

BY THE LATE
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## PARTII. SYNTAX

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## PREFACE

## 

By the kind permission of Mrs. Platts, I have been enabled to prepare this new Edition of the late Mr. Platts's Persian Grammar.

In carrying out this work, it has been my object to make as few changes as possible in the arrangement, and to depart as little as was consistent with what experience has shown to be necessary from the original scheme of the late author.

In the following directions only has any considerable change been introduced. The paragraphs dealing with the Classification of the Persian Verb ( $\$ 73$ to $\S 89$ inclusive of the former Edition) have, in this Edition, been relegated to an Appendix, their place being taken in the text by a system of classification deemed more suitable to the initial requirements of students.

Section III, on the Formation of Compound Words, has been entirely recast, as it was felt that the Classification therein adopted was capable of improvement, and that the changes now made both in Classification and Nomenclature would not only prove advantageous from every point of view but were such as Mr. Platts would have approved.

A fifth section has been added, dealing briefly with Prosody; this important subject having been entirely omitted from the earlier Edition. It is hoped that this will add to the value of the book.

In the portion of the book which treats of Arabic Grammar I have recast the paragraphs dealing with the Formation and Signification of the Derived Forms of the Arabic Conjugations.

In view of the probable intention of the late Mr. Platts to write a second part embodying the Syntax, it was hoped that he might have left some portion at least of such a work in Manuscript. Had such been the case it would have been a pleasurable task for me to continue the work upon the lines laid down by him. Careful search and inquiry, however, failed to elicit any information as to his intended scheme, and, in the absence of any notes of his, I have
felt at liberty to follow my own inclinations in the preparation of the portion of this work which deals with the Syntax of Persian.

The Series of Parallel Grammars by Mr. E. A. Sonnenschein seemed to me to be by far the most suitable model upon which to frame a Syntax of Persian, and a request made by me to that gentleman for permission to adopt his system in the execution of my task having met with a most courteous reception, I have made full, and, I hope, good use of the permission so graciously accorded me. I desire to tender my cordial thanks to him and to the publishers, Messrs. Swan Sonnenschein \& Co., for allowing me to extend to Persian the system of treatment so ably and successfully inaugurated by them in the case of Greek and Latin.

The want of a systematic Syntax of Persian must have been long felt by others as it has by myself. For some reason no European scholar has hitherto attempted to systematise the syntactical structure of the Persian language, with the result that Persian has not met with the consideration it deserves as a medium for the expression of thought, and has been treated as though it were a mere vernacular with little or no claim to literary form or structural elegance. It is hoped that the present work may tend in some degree to remove that misconception, and to encourage the more critical study which the language so richly deserves.
My thanks are due to Professor Margoliouth of this University for his kindness in reading the portion of the Grammar treating of the Derived Conjugations of the Arabic Verb. Also to my old and valued master and friend Shamsu-1-'Ulamā Shaikh Maḥmūd Gīlānī, a former colleague on the Board of Examiners, Calcutta, as also to his successor Shamsu-l-Ulamā Shaikh Kāzuim Shīrāzī, for various helpful suggestions and criticisms.

In conclusion I desire to express my cordial thanks to the Delegates of the Clarendon Press for publishing this work, and for the extreme care and accuracy with which they have produced it.

OxFORD, July, 1911.

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## PERSIAN GRAMMAR




$$
\alpha \cdot \alpha \cdot g: g \log _{0} \rightarrow 0
$$



$$
u \cdot a \cdot 9=0 \quad y
$$




## SECTION I

## I. THE LETTERS AS CONSONANTS

§ 1. The alphabet of modern Persian consists of thirty-two letters, and the character in which these are written is the Arabic. Previous to the conquest of Persia by the Arabs, the Persian alphabet consisted of twenty-four letters, and the character used was the Pehlevi. ${ }^{1}$ But after the Arab conquest, when the Persians came under the religion of Islā̀m, they practically adopted the whole Arabic vocabulary, and, at the same time, the Arabic alphabet and characters. Thus eight more letters-letters peculiarly Arabic-were added to the original alphabet. Moreover, as four of the old Persian letters were unknown to the Arabic, a modified form of the Arabic character for the letter of the corresponding class was, in each case, given to these. The thirty-two letters so obtained are all considered as consonants, and are written and read from right to left. Several of them assume different forms, according to their position in the formation of a word or a combined group, as may be seen in the preceding Table, in which the letters peculiarly Persian are marked with an asterisk, and those peculiarly Arabic, with an obelisk.

## PRONUNCIATION OF THE LETTERS

§ 2. The correct pronunciation of some of the letters, as, for example, $\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{E}^{\prime}$, and , it is very difficult for a European to acquire. Most of them, however, are sufficiently represented by the corresponding English characters, and the following hints will enable the learner to approximate to the sounds of those that are difficalt.

I alif, or hamza (as it is commonly called, to distinguish it from the alif of prolongation, $\S 6$, Rem. $a$ ), is the spiritus lenis. At the beginning

[^1]of a word or syllable it must necessarily be a consonant, and be accompanied by one of the short vowels. In Arabic, this alif is, except in a few instances, written with the mark = (called hamza) over it, e.g. Í. The Persians drop this mark (s) at the beginning of a word, but generally retain it when it occurs at the beginning of a syllable in the middle of an Arabic word, e.g. 性 ${ }^{3}$ E matter of fact the Persians use this I simply as a prop to support the short vowel which accompanies it, and it is only when it occurs in the middle of a word, immediately preceded by a short vowel, that any effort of the throat in its pronunciation takes place, and, even then, the effort is so slight that it amounts to little more than a hiatus between the two short vowels.

ب $b$ and $p$ are exactly our $b$ and $p$.
$\because t$ is the Italian dental ; softer than our $t$.
$\star s$ is pronounced by the Arabs like the Greek $\theta$, or our $t h$ in thin; but the Persians pronounce it with a very slight lisp; in other words, they make hardly any distinction between it and $س$. The word ى
$ج^{j}$ corresponds to the English $j$ in jewel.
て ${ }^{c h}$ has the sound of our $c h$ in church.
$\tau^{k}$ is a very sharp but smooth guttural aspirate, stronger than s, but not quite so rough as $\dot{\sim}$, though closely approximating to the sound of that letter.
$\dot{\chi}$ loh, has the sound of $c h$ in the Scotch word loch.
$\lrcorner d$, is the Italian dental, softer than our $d$. In poetry, however, s, in words purely Persian, has the sound of the Italian dental only when it is initial, or is preceded by a quiescent letter (excepting the long vowels $\bar{a}, \bar{u}, \bar{\imath})$, as
$\dot{j} \underline{z}$ is pronounced like $j$, or the English z, but with a slight lisp.
, $r$ is a distinctly articulated lingual $r$, pronounced as the Scotch pronounce it, not slurred over as in ordinary English.
$j z$ is the English $z$.
$j z h$ is pronounced like the $j$ of the Fr. jour, or our $z$ in azure.
$\omega s$ is the English $s$ in sing, sit.
$\omega$ wh has the sound of our sh in shine, bush.
$ص s$ is, in Arabic, a strongly articulated $s$, somewhat like our ss in hiss. At the commencement of a word it is accompanied by a faint $u$-sound.

ض $z$ is, in Arabic, an aspirated $d$, pronounced somewhat like our th in this; but in the Persian it has a slightly heavier sound than $; z$.
$b t$ is pronounced in Persian more like $e t$ than in Arabic, in which language it is a strongly articulated palatal $t$.
b 2 , in Persian, has the sound of $; z$; in Arabic, it is a strongly articulated palatal $z$.
$\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}$, in Arabic, is a strong guttural. It is described as produced by a smart compression of the upper part of the windpipe and forcible emission of the breath. The Persians, however, make scarcely any distinction between it and the consonant I alif. It is simply pronounced with a slight trill; e.g. C . $b a-\mathrm{C}$-ad; and when it begins a syllable in the middle of a word, there is (as in the case of alif) a very perceptible pause and effort of the throat in the enuuciation; e.g. . from the short vowel which accompanies it, and is represented by ', ' $a$, ' $i$, ' $u$, \&c.
$\dot{\varepsilon} g h$ is a strongly guttural $g$. Its sound like that of $\varepsilon$ must be learned by the ear. It is impossible to describe the sound, or to represent it to the eye by any combination of English letters. It is conventionally transliterated gh, e.g. باغ bāgh, غراغ $\quad$ chirāgh. In a few words $\dot{\varepsilon}$ is interchangeable with $\mathcal{G}$, e.g. آغ آَا $\bar{a} g h \bar{a}$ or $\bar{a} q \bar{a}$.
$\mathfrak{j}$ is a strong guttural $k$-sound. The name of the letter itself may be compared to the 'caw' of a crow. In a few words it is interchangeable with $\dot{\varepsilon}$, while in some words it is pronounced like $\mathfrak{s}$, e.g. قربان gurbān. It is conventionally transliterated by $q$.
$\leftrightarrow(\leqslant) k$ is the English $k$. When it is written $\circlearrowleft$, the mark $\&$ serves to distinguish it from $\mathrm{J} l$. In the form © that mark is superfluous.
©, 心g is the English $g$ hard, as in go, give.
$J l$ and $\rho^{m}$ are exactly our $l$ and $m$.
$\cup^{n}$ is, generally speaking, our $n$; bat when it is quiescent (i.e. marked with sukunn, § 9), and immediately followed by a labial (ب $b$, $\vartheta p, \omega f$ ), it has the sound of $m$, e.g. دُ دُ Jo dumb (also ' 'tail';
 termination of the plural, and in the demonstrative pronouns in in and $\begin{gathered}\text { آ } \\ a \\ n\end{gathered}$, as well as in a few other words ending in $\overline{0} \bar{n} n$, the nūn has a nasal sound. This nasal $n$ is termed xiغُ
g $v$. In Persian the pronunciation of this consonant lies somewhere between $v$ and $w$; but inclines more to $v$.

- $h$, initial, medial, or final (especially after a long vowel), is an aspirate like our $h$ in hand, him. But at the end of a word, when preceded by the short vowel fath $a(\S 5, a)$, it is simply a prop for that vowel and is not sounded; e. g. s. 1 º- banda 'slave'; s sis dāna 'grain' (in the transliteration of which the final silent $h$ does not appear). So also after the vowel kasra $(\S 5, b)$, in the words $\varepsilon k i, k$ chic . The
 such words, however, as 8 , rah 'road', \& shah 'king', so mah 'moon' (which are contractions-occurring in poetry and in compounds-of
 pounds formed with it, the final 8 is sounded, and is known as هاهى 't the evident $h$ '.

Note, that the $h$ which is sounded is a radical letter; whereas the silent $h$ is, in the case of purely Persian words, simply an orthographical sign, employed as an artifice in order to preserve the short vowel which moves the preceding consonant, which vowel would otherwise disappear; since the final letter of every Persian word must be quiescent, that is vowel-less.

Note. The termination $8=$ is derived from two sources. In native words it represents the Phl. suffix -ak (O.P. -aka), the $k$ of which is dropped in Persian, and the sign a substituted, for the reason stated above; thus Phl. bandak 'slave' (O.P. bandaka) becomes in Persian بئدَ banda. In words received from the Arabic, $8=a$ stands for the feminine termination 8 - at of that language, by change of $\ddot{z} t$ to $h$ (silent), or, in other words, by the adoption of the pausal form
 fem. of ملب) ; عَاتِلَّ 'āqila 'intelligent' for Ar. عاقَلة, fem. of عاقل (


Rem. When $\bar{z}-(h \bar{a}-t \bar{a})$ is affixed to masculine nouns to form the feminines, the 8 is invariably changed to $\quad ~ h$ (silent) in Persian. In othes cases, the Ar. $\overline{8}$ is changed, sometimes to and sometimes to - $t$, both of which letters it is held to represent as its name $h \bar{a}-t \bar{a}$

 e.g. مراسله murāsala, and murāsalat. In a few words the Ar. 8 remains unaltered, e.g. 8 g ${ }^{\prime}$ 'َّ
© $y$, consonantal, is the English $y$ in yes, you.

## CONJUNCT CONSONANTS

§ 3, a. Conjuncts do not exist in Persian. If these occur in words received from the parent language or from other sources, they are resolved by prefixing a prosthetic vowel to them and making the first consonant quiescent; or by inserting a short vowel between the two consonants $\left(v . \S 15,2^{\circ}\right)$; e.g. primitive sta- is changed to ista-, or sita-; prin. stūn, to ustūn or sutūn; prim. ushtr-, to ushtur; prim. frā-, to farā-; prim. gri-, to giri-; prim. frōt, to furōd; and so on.
b．Conjunct خ．The letter $خ$ in conjunction with ，خو）occurs at the beginning of some Persian words，most of them words of common occurrence；but $\boldsymbol{j}$ is regarded by Persians as a simple sound， the，being neglected in pronunciation ；e．g．$\quad \underset{y}{c h} \frac{k h u d}{}$ or khad＇self＇ （pronounced an though written خُخ خَد ，the latter，however，only in
 khurdan＇to eat＇；خَوراستن Khästan＇to wish＇（not to be confounded with خاستن khāstan＇to rise＇）；خوان khān＇table＇（but خان خhān
 own＇；خر khai＇sweat＇．خ in such words is originally a conjunct， appearing in Phl．as $\Psi h v$ ；and in Zend as $h v a(\mathrm{~S} . ~ s w a)$ ；e．g．خود $=$ Phl．hvat＝Z．hvato－（S．swa－tas）．Persian grammarians appear to have lost cognizance of this fact．They regard the $\dot{\tau}$ and $g$ as separate and independent letters and term the, ，وا， $i$－zamma＇the vãv that has a soupçon of zamma＇，or according to
 $v \bar{a} v '$＇，which latter term is，however，more correctly given to the, of the words $g, g$ ，and $9 \rightarrow$ ．This letter is to be omitted in trans－ literation except in the last－mentioned words in which it appears as $u$ ，e．g．$d u$ ，$t u$ ，and chu．

## INTERCHANGEABLE LETTERS

§ 4．The interchangeable letters noticed by native grammarians and recorded in the lexicons are for the most part exemplified by words which belong rather to the different dialects from which the literary language derives many of its words than to the literary language itself．The fact is，that the literary language generally adopts one of those various dialectic forms as the classical type．Still double forms are by no means rare．It is sufficient to notice here such letters as are most commonly interchanged；e．g．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (..) } 3 \text {; , } \\
& \text { كدخدا ,كتخدا ; زردُشت ,زرُتُشت } \\
& \text { てでう;" } \\
& \text { the diminutive suffixes } x \text { x }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {. وش ,فش ; وام , رفا }
\end{aligned}
$$

(1) $\overline{5}$ eng. بإبَان ,

Note, that in many words which, in the primitive form, have I for the initial letter, modern Persian substitutes the aspirate if or 1 . In some words both forms exist side by side, as shown above.

Rem. Arabicized forms of Persian words are common in Persian. The principal changes of letters which such words present are as follows:-


To the above may perhaps be added the word سِراج; although this is generally regarded as a pure Arabic word; e.g.
(سرأج (lamp', for

## II. THE VOWELS, DIPHTHONGS, AND OTHER ORTHOGRAPHICAL SIGNS

## a) The Vowels and Diphthongs

§5. Short Vowels. The following signs are used to express the short vowels, the first and third being written after and over, and the second after and under, the consonant which is to be rendered movent :-
a. - fath $(x \overline{\operatorname{j}})$ ) or zabar $(\overline{\mathrm{j}} \overline{\mathrm{j}})$. The sound of this vowel cannot be accurately represented by any English vowel. It is intermediate between the $u$ in bud, and $e$ in bed.
N.B. It never has the sound of $a$ in cap, though it is represented conventionally by $a$, a fact which is apt to lead a learner astray.
 of $i$ in pin, but in some words that of a in revel; e.g. Jo dit 'heart'; re dis 'village'; ب! bit 'good'.
c. - zamma ( , pul 'a bridge'; ; بُلْ bulbul 'a nightingale'.
N.B. The archaic sounds of $v$ and $g$, namely like $u$ in mason and
 opposed to the ${ }^{\text {a }}$,

An initial vowel or diphthong must in writing be supported by alif hamza ( 1 alif, § 2); e.g. آست ast 'is', , آَنْ ' andar 'in', inkārr 'denial', , إير in 'this', ,' ' $\bar{u}$ 'he'.

Rem. Fatha, kasra, zamma are the Arabic names for the short vowel-marks; zabar, zir, and $p \bar{\imath} s h$, the Persian names. Both are commonly used. Collectively, they are termed برابر 'iräb 'vowelpoints', or $\operatorname{el}$. harakāt 'motions' (plur. of harakat); and a consonant which is accompanied by one of them is said to be ©

.
§ 6. Long Vowels. (a) The long vowels are indicated by placing the marks of the short vowels before the letters I, g, and $ى$, thus:$1=\bar{a}$, e.g. . , $\bar{u}$, e.g. دبُ بُ $b \bar{u} d ; \quad, \quad, \quad u$ in rule, or oo in pool. ى- $\bar{\imath}$, e.g. ", $\quad$ بِيد $b \bar{\imath} d ; \quad i$ in police or ee in peel.
(b) In the last generation, $\bar{a}$ was generally sounded like our $\equiv$ in ball; but though still so sounded in parts of Persia (and especially in the Kāshān dialect), it is now becoming very common to give it the sound of our $a$ in bar, as it had in Persia in olden times, and has, even now, in the Persian of India. ${ }^{1}$ As regards the combinations $s$ - and $و$ - , it may be observed that, in the language of the past, they indicated the diphthongs $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{o}$, as well as the long vowels $\bar{z}$ and $\bar{u}$; just as they do at the present day in the archaic Persian of India. This distinction, however, has long been abandoned in Persia. It is now only met with in the writings of the older poets, and is noticeable in that an $\bar{e}$ (as in ' a man') cannot rhyme with $\bar{\imath}$ (as in 'manliness'); or $\bar{o}$ (as in $\mathcal{v}$, royy 'metal') with $\bar{u}$ (as in $\mathcal{v}$ ر ruxy

[^2]

(c) In the words تُو 'thou', دُ 'two', وُ 'like', 'even as' (which are pronounced tu, du, chu, ham-chu, and not $t \bar{u}, \& c$. .), the $g$ is not 'a letter of prolongation', but simply an orthographical sign, similar to the silent 8 in such words as 8 土َنْ $\operatorname{co}$ banda. As no word in the language can end in any but a quiescent letter (i.e. either a vowel-less consonant, or a letter of prolongation), it would be inadmissible to write $\stackrel{\sim}{\bullet}, \stackrel{3}{2}, \& c$. ; hence the necessity for the use of the $g$, to preserve the short vowel $u$. See $\S 3, b, v a \bar{u} v-i$-maंdū $\bar{l} a$.

Rem. a. When I, g, and $v$ are employed to form the long vowels, they are called ${ }^{\text {os }}$ : because they have the effect of lengthening the preceding short vowels; and also give fullness of sound' (to the preceding homogeneous short vowels). I,, , and $\mathcal{v}$ correspond to fatha, kasra, and zamma respectively;



Rem. b. The 1 of prolongation is omitted in some Arabic words; but the omission is indicated by the preceding fatha being written perpendicularly; e.g. $\left.h a \bar{z} \bar{a}(\text { for } 1)_{0}\right)$ 'that'. The perpendicular fatha represents a small alif. In a few Arabic words the perpendicular fatha is followed by , or $v:$ in such cases these letters are sounded like the alif of pro-


Rem. c. Imāla. The vowel $\bar{a}$ of Arabic words is frequently changed
 $\bar{a} m i n ;$ لِيكن lākin (archaic lēkin), for lākin; and the names of


 (hajeb), and many more, instead of كِتَاب kitā̄b, \&c. This
 that of $\bar{z}(\bar{e})^{\prime}$.
§7. Diphthongs. The vowel fatha before, and $v$ forms the diphthongs, $a u$ and $\mathcal{v}^{-} a i$, which in former days (as in India at the present time) had-the former the sound of our ou in house, and the latter, that of our ai in aisle, or our $y$ in lyre; but the Persians of the present day sound, - like $\overline{o u}$, and $ى$ - like $a \ddot{i}, \bar{e}$; e.g. $\mathrm{g}^{2}$ rau or roü 'go thou'; فيْ hä̈f or heïf 'pity; wrong'.

Rem. a. If g be preceded by kasra and $\varsigma$ by zamma, the, and $\varsigma$ must be consonants, e. g.

Rem. b. In Arabic words, final $\varsigma$ after a fatha is pronounced like 1; e.g. $\overline{\bar{\sigma}}{ }^{\circ}$ 'alā,
 it is shortened in pronunciation when it comes in contact with an alif conjunctionis ( آلِفُ ( alifu 'l-vasl), or (so far as its use in Persian is concerned) the lof the Ar. article Jlal, e.g. © 'on the instant, instantly'. This $s$ is sometimes (in India invariably) written $\sqrt[\downarrow]{ }$. The Persians have in numerous instances substituted I for it, and now commonly change the final $v=\bar{a}$ into $v-\bar{i}$, e.g. .
 are shortened in pronunciation when immediately followed by the Arabic article ( $\S 13, \beta$ ).

Rem. c. Native grammarians and lexicographers generally call the initial spiritus lenis ( 1 alif) of any Persian or Arabic word alifimaqṣira 'short alif'.
§8. Tanwin. The marks of the short vowels, when doubled, are generally pronounced with the addition of the sound $\underline{n}$ (represented
 (تَتْنْ occur at the end of an Ar. word. Tanwin of fatha takes an 1 after


 affects the quantity of the vowel, which is always short. The Persians, however, have very generally dropped the sound of $\underline{n}$ and converted
 When 三 precedes $v$ the alif is not written, e.g. هُ of hudañ.

Rem. Tanwin of zamma and of kasra do not occur in Persian, except in occasional Arabic sentences. Words ending in tanwin of fatha $=$ are common as adverbs.

## b) Other Orthographical Signs

§9. Sukūn. a. The mark - © called jazm 'amputation', written over a consonant, indicates that it is the final consonant of shut syllable, and serves, when another consonant
筷 bulbul, $q u r-\bar{a} n$ (not $q u-r a \bar{a} n$ ). The last letter of every Persian word is necessarily quiescent (except in construction); hence it is not marked with sukūn. It may further be remarked that two
consecutive quiescent consonants very often occur in pure Persian words, and sometimes three, if the first be letter of prolongation

$\beta$. The letters, and $\mathcal{v}$, when they form diphthongs with fatha, are marked with a sukūn, بَبْت bait ; but when they stand for letters of prolongation they do not take this sign, although they are regarded as quiescent; e.g. بُبِ بُ būm, bīm.

Rem. A consonant which has no following vowel is said to be
 حَ harf-i-mutaharrik 'a movent letter'). If two or more quiescent letters occur together in a word, the first alone is said to be sākin; the others are termed mauquuf (
 are said to be mauqüf.
§ 10. Tashdid. a. A consonant that is to be doubled without the interposition of a vowel, is written only once, but marked with the sign $\stackrel{\omega}{-}$ tashddid (تَتْدِيد) or 'strengthening'; e.g. battar,
 letters ends one syllable and the second begins the following, as shid-dat, and each of them must be pronounced distinctly and with emphasis, or a slight pause on the first, as in mid-day, pen-knife, and not slurred over, as double letters usually are in English.
b. A final consonant being quiescent (sākin) in Persian, tashdīd in such a situation is useless, and is therefore usually discarded; e.g.
 restored if the word is in the construct state ; e.g. 1 (also ${ }^{\text {در }}$ دريا dur-i-daryā) 'the pearl of the ocean'. The dropping


Rem. The tashdid is also frequently dropped in Persian in a number



 letters in purely Persian words may sometimes receive tashdīd by poetical licence, e.g. .

 'judges' (broken plural of $\begin{gathered}\text { قَفِیى } q \bar{a} z \bar{\imath}) \text {. }\end{gathered}$
c. Tashdīd is either essential or euphonic. In Arabic words, essential tashdidd indicates a doubling upon which the signification of the word

 shappara (for شَبَ (for شب شب shab-bū) 'the small white lily' (lit. giving forth perfume
 Euphonic tashdid only occurs in the case of an Arabic word beginning
 $J$, or $u$, defined by the article $\bar{\jmath}$ al. In such words the $J$ of the article is, to avoid harshness of sound, passed over in pronunciation and assimilated to the following consonant, which is then marked with tashdīd, the sukün $\left(-{ }^{\circ}\right)$ of the $J$ being omitted ; e.g. . . ألّْور an-nür. See 'solar' letters.
'Solar'letters. ت , ث , \&c., are called 'solar letters' ( ḥurūf-i-shamsīya, or an al-hurūūfu'sh-shamsīya), because the word شَهْس 'sun' happens to begin with one of them; and the remaining letters of the Arabic alphabet, 'lunar letters' ( hurūfi-qamarīya or the word qamar ' moon' begins with one of them.
§ 11. Hamza. a. The spiritus lenis, or hamza ( $\mathrm{j} ; 0$ os, signifying 'compression', i.e. of the larynx), is a mark = which, in Arabic words, is placed over the consonant 1 , or over the consonants, and $v$ when they stand in place of $1 ;$ as $1, g, s \in$. But the name hamaa is commonly applied to the consonant with the mark $=$ over it; and, indeed, to the consonant alone.
b. Of the forms $\{, \xi, \mathcal{\xi}$, the first alone can stand at the beginning of a word. But, in Persian, 1 is not marked with s, except at the beginning of a syllable in the middle of a word, e.g. تiff jur'at. In the middle of a word hamza is usually represented in transliteration by a comma to the left of the upper part of the letter to which it belongs, and at the end, by a comma to the right; e.g. 號 ta'ammul,

 '
c. Hamza, in the forms 1 and $\mathfrak{s}^{3}$, also occurs in Persian words; e.g.
 وتُوِيى 'tu'ī 'thou art'. But the functions of the Persian hamza (s) are very different from those of the Arabic, as will be shown in treating of the $i \not \approx a ̈ f a t ~(§ 26)$ and the indefinite article (§ 36).

Rem. The Arabic = is a small $\varepsilon$, and indicates that the pronunciation of $\mathfrak{l}$ approximates to that of 'ain.
§ 12. Madda. The sound of long $a(\bar{a})$ at the beginning of a word or syllable is represented by $T$ instead of $I T$, as $\bar{T} \bar{a} b$, ulu $\bar{T} \bar{a} s m a \bar{a} n$,
 tion', which when hastily written becomes $\sim$.

Rem. T is called alif-i-mamdūda (الفــ مْ long, alif', to distinguish it from the alif-i-maqsüra (§ 7, Rem. b).
§ 13. Vaṣla. a. In Persian, the sign $\simeq$ vasila ( $x{ }^{\circ} 0$, 'union, conjunction'), occurs only in Arabic words defined by the article Jil is marked over the 1 of the article to indicate the absorption of its vowel by the final vowel of the preceding word and the elision of the alif itself; e.g. believers'; دار dāru's-saltanat 'abode of sovereignty; metropolis' $(v . \S 10, c)$.
$\beta$. The alif-i-maqsüra ( $\S 7$, Rem. b) and the long vowels are shortened in pronunciation before an alif with vaṣla (or hamzatu'l-vasl); e.g.

號符

Rem. The hamzatu'l-vaṣl ( 1 ) is omitted in the first word of the
 God' (vulgarly called the

 contain all the short vowels and orthographical signs (Palmer, Arabic Grammar).

## NUMERICAL VALUE OF THE LETTERS

§ 14. The twenty-eight letters of the Arabic alphabet are sometimes used as numerals. Their numerical order, however, differs from that given in the alphabet, being, in fact, the order of the Hebrew or Phoenician alphabet. The letters in this order are grouped into the following eight meaningless words, to serve as a memoria technica, and are briefly called 'the $A b j a d$ ':


This use of the numerical letters occurs chiefly in chronograms, $\left.\dot{خ}^{-}\right)^{\prime}$, as in the following, which records the date of the poet Allii of Shīrāz:

## 位 'Ahlī was the king of poets',

in which the numerical value of the letters $(=ب), 1, د, \& c$. , when added together, amount to the year 942 of the Hijra (A.D. 1535) in which the event took place.

Sometimes the is the chronogram recording the date of the death of Ma'ruff-i-Karkhī. The letter, occupying the centre position in the word معروف-the 'heart' of Ma'rüf-gives the value 200, which answers to the Hijrī year in which Maruuf died. Or the $\dot{\text { che }}$ ti may be meaningless, e.g. تكز records the date of the death of Avicenna in 427 н.

Rem. In reckoning by the Abjad, each of the four Persian letters $\because, \mathbb{Y}$, and © has the same value as its cognate Arabic letter; and a letter marked with tashdīd is to be reckoned only once.

## PHONOLOGY

§15. The phonetic changes noticed in this place relate chiefly to nouns (including infinitives) and particles. Those which occur in connexion with pronouns and the inflexion of verbs, will be treated of in the sections which deal with those parts of speech.
$1^{10}$. Aphaeresis. In many words of the modern language, initial i $a$, when followed by a consonant, is often omitted; e.g. the old prepositions اببر 'ابر 'on' 'ابى 'without', invariably appear in prose, and generally in the poetry of the classical period, as as بی ,بر. Similarly ابابز 'back; again', is reduced to اوام ; 'guilt', to p 'واز ; and (in poetry) $;$ ' 'from', to $; ;, \boldsymbol{\pi}$ 'if', to,

Note. The ancient alpha privativum generally disappears in modern Persian. Hence ويثز 'unmixed, pure' (for (اويرغ ) ; نابر "unwatered, pure, neat' (instead of $a n \bar{a} b$, prim. $a n+\bar{a} p$ ); sut 'suddenly, unexpectedly' (prim. an $+\bar{a} k \bar{a} s)$; نوميد, نُمیید 'hopeless, despairing' (from Phl. an-ōmēt); نوشيروان a proper name (from Phl. anūshīn-ravān 'of immortal soul').
$2^{\circ}$. An initial short vowel followed by a conjunct, of which the first consonant is quiescent, may be omitted (in prose, is generally omitted in the case of nouns). This necessitates the making the first consonant of the conjunct movent $(v . \S 3, a)$. The vowel to be employed varies according to the vowels of the initial I and the second consonant:
a) If the initial letter is $\bar{\Gamma} a$, and the second consonant bears a fatha or kasra, on the omission of the $\bar{i}$ the first consonant receives a kasra or a fatha; e.g.

b) If the initial is $i$, or $i$, and the second consonant bears a zamma, the first consonant generally receives a $\begin{gathered}\text { amma } \\ \text {; but it may also bear }\end{gathered}$ a kasra; e. g. jورز ' 'burning, illumining' (for آَفْروز, as in the compound

 'to fall' (from آْنّادن إْ
c) If the initial letter is $!$, the first consonant receives kasra; e.g.
 for كَلِستانـا
3. Syncope. Medial long vowels followed by $\gamma$ are very commonly shortened, especially in poetry and compounds; e.g. 8, rah, for 81 ,
 ديه 'mountain'; '
 also occurs occasionally when the long vowel is followed by other

 first member of compounds ; e.g. هیان 'like that', 'حْ 'like him'.
40. Apocope. (a) Nouns ending in $\gamma$ preceded by a long vowel (chiefly $\bar{a}$ ), may, in poetry, drop, the final 8 ; e.g. لادها for ' لادشاه 'king';

(b) Similarly, nouns ending in $\mathcal{c}$, preceded by a long vowel (excepting $\bar{\imath}$ ), very frequently drop the final $\mathcal{v}(v, \S 20, b$, Note); e.g.
 'face'. This invariably takes place in compounds, e.g. g, 'fairy-faced'.

## THE ACCENT

§ 16. Generally speaking, the primary accent falls on the last syllable of a word. But in the case of words of more than one syllable, there is also a secondary accent on the first; or, in words of three syllables with the penult long, on the penult; e.g. $\bar{\pi}$ agár, اندر àndâr, pìdâr (plur. מیدر pìdarán), شیران shùtúr (plur. شترها




The exceptions are :-
a) Nouns with the following suffixes, which (excepting the first, which has no accent) take a secondary accent: 1) $-i$, 'the kasra of
relation, or description' (§§26,37); e.g. مرد نياك mard-i-nitl. 2) J, rā, the postposition of the dative and accusative cases (§ 30 ), ,

 5) The enclitics -am, -at, -ash, \&c. (§ 59), e.g. دیر piddardm, دخترم dùlchtáràsh.
b) Verbs in the Past tense where the last syllable is one of the personal endings $-a m,-\bar{\imath},-\bar{i} m, \& c$. $(\S 93, b)$. In these the last syllable takes a secondary accent, the primary being retained by the altimate
 àfaridànd. The same rule holds in the case of the Present, if the long final of the stem is not shortened by the addition of the personal terminations; ө.g. final syllable of the stem becomes short, the primary accent passes on


c) The forms of the Past Continuous, \&c., which terminate in the particle $\leqslant-\bar{\imath}(\xi 97,2))$. The $\bar{\imath}$ receives a secondary accent, without affecting the accentuation of the stem; e.g. pàrvárdamì ,
d) Verbs with the particles $m \bar{m},{ }_{v} b i, \alpha^{2} n a$ and wo ma prefixed, or having the prefixes $\rho$ بar, $\boldsymbol{\jmath}$ dar, ${ }^{j}$ با $b \bar{a} z$. In these the primary accent falls on the particles and prefixes; e.g. mingustaràm,



e) The substantive verb, which only takes the secondary accent;
 ‘àqql-àst, دزداذن dùzdán-ànd.
f) A few Arabic and Persian conjunctions, adverbs, and interjections, which have the accent on the first syllable; e.g. Lّا ámmāu 'but', بلى balī 'yea, yes', lîkin 'but', ى'و valā 'but, however', \&c.,


Prepositions, the conjunction, $u$, or $v a$, the rel. pron. (and conjunctions) $\delta k i$ and $x c h i$, and the adverb $\cup \geqslant c h u n$ (used in compounds for

 chunânchi.

## SECTION II. ETYMOLOGY

## THE PARTS OF SPEECH

§ 17. Persian grammarians, using the grammatical terminology of the Arabic, class all the parts of speech under the three general heads
 and Particles ( حرز harf). The hurū̄f, sing. إسم includes 10 The substantive (1) ism-i-maussuff the noun which is described or qualified', or simply $\quad$ ! ism). $2^{0}$ The adjective (تَقِ numerical adjective ( $4^{0}$ The personal pronoun ( $\quad$ خamir 'the noun that is kept in
 noun of indication, or by which something is pointed out'). $6^{\circ}$ The
 nected', i. e. with a relative clause). 70 The interrogative pronoun ( الِسْ إْمْ ism-i-istifhām 'the noun that seeks information', or
 ism-i-mubham 'the indeterminate or indefinite noun'). 90 The
 verb originate'). $10^{\circ}$ The deverbal nouns, as the nomen agentis

 ( $x$ ) subject or object).

Under the term خُرون are comprised- $1^{0}$ Adverbs (termed ${ }^{\circ}$ tamiz 'the specification', or the act is done', as time or place; or negation', \&c., according to the sense in which the adverb is used); $2^{\circ}$ Prepositions ( ${ }^{\omega}$ حروِ $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ hurūf-i-jarr 'particles of attraction'); 30 Conjunctions (حرونِ عَطْفَ hurūf-i-ánf 'conjunctive particles', or حرونِ شرْط harticles', or hurūf-i-shart ' conditional particles', \&c.) ; $4^{0}$ Interjections (حرونِ ذِدَا ḥurūf-i-nidā ' particles of calling').

## I. THE SUBSTANTIVE (

## A. Gender (uْmins)

§ 18. Modern Persian has abandoned the distinction of grammatical gender. It employs the masculine and feminine andications of sex, just as we do in English, and nothing more. Thus there are four ways of distinguishing the masculine and the feminine.
(1) By employing a different word for each sex:

ماديان mādiyān 'mare'.
ن mākiyān 'hen'.
(2) By prefixing the words $\dot{j}$ or ${ }^{\circ 5}$ 'male' and 8 '5 'female' (in the case of irrational animals) to indicate the sex:
, نرّره شير 'lion',

مادهر 'lioness'.
(3) By putting the words $;$ and rolo, and (for rational beings) مرد sman' and $ن$ ' 'woman' in apposition with izäfat:
شيرِ نرِ 'lion',
نییرٍ مرد 'old man', بیيرِ زن '
(4) By putting a word denoting a human being in apposition to the words رن j , connecting them by izäfat:

$$
\text { مرد }{ }^{5} \text { 'beggar' (man), } \quad 1 \omega^{Y} \text { 'beggar' (woman). }
$$

Note. The observations of $\S 18$ apply to Persian nouns alone. Arabic nouns (subst. adj. \&c.) are all either masc. or fem.; and the distinction of grammatical gender is often observed even in Persian when an Arabic substantive is constructed with an Arabic adjective (v. § 37, a, a).

## B. Number (دَّ)

 the plural ( the addition of the suffixes $u^{-} \bar{a} n$ and $l o h \bar{a}$. The former of these is invariably suffixed to nouns, simple or compound, which denote human beings; e.g. رودان 'men' (from 'man'); 'women';



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {, pidar 'father', } \\
& \text { تِسْر pisar 'son', } \\
& \text { أسب asb 'horse', } \\
& \text { خروس khumüs 'cock', } \\
& \text { خرس khurūs 'cock', }
\end{aligned}
$$

inanimate objects；e．g．loss＇doors＇（from ，＇door＇）；㡎 roses＇； عيبها＇defects＇；＇griefs＇；while either suffix may be used （generally without distinction）in the case of－

1）Nouns denoting irrational animals；e．g．ناسباس（ or＇horses＇； شُرها شُران

2）Names applicable to double members of the body；as دستاب or دستها＇hands＇；or＇لبها＇lips＇．

3）Nouns denoting things endowed with the power of growth


4）Names applicable to things that recur regularly，or which are of

 ＇آفتابها＇＇أفتابان or suns＇；＇
b．In a few words，however，a distinction is made in the use of the two suffixes；e．g．سر＇head＇；plur．سرها＇heads＇；but سران＇chiefs， princes＇；©ردن＇neck＇，plur．${ }^{\prime}$＇ tinguished or eminent＇（of）．The word oj＇thousand＇，has for its plural هزاران as well as هزارها ；while makes its plural od ه ه only． The names of inanimate objects，when personified，may also form their plurals by the addition of the suffix $\bar{a} n$ ，e．g．غها＇griefs＇，as in the following couplet：－

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {; روزگ } \\
& \text { in }
\end{aligned}
$$

＇Such griefs have I in my heart from Time，that were I to place （them）on the heart of a mountain，its back would give way＇．－And Hafiz has

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { زذس غهان كا بديلم }
\end{aligned}
$$

＇In consequence of the many griefs which I have experienced I am reduced to such a state that the morning breeze might blow me away from my place with a puff＇．

Note．a．There are two words which，although originally plurals， are in modern Persian invariably used as singulars ：－1）بزد＇1＇God＇ （＝PhI．yazat－ān＇the gods＇；sing．yazat；whence Pers． ＇God＇）；2）（for mustim－ān，Perse．plur．of the Ar．


Note．b．In the spoken language of the present day there is a tendency to form all plurals by suffixing 6 to the singular．Thus we meet with－not only 1 ＇women＇，and ايرانيها＇Iranians or Persians＇．

Rem. The suffix $\bar{a} n$ is shown by Darmesteter to be derived from the O.P. ānām, the genitive suffix of the plur. of stems in $a$; and the suffix $h \bar{a}$ from the O.P. $\bar{a} k h a m$, the termination of the gen. plur. of the personal pronouns.
§ 20. The suffix $\bar{a} n$ is added immediately to the singular when this ends in a consonant, as is shown in the examples of the preceding paragraph. But when the singular ends in a vowel certain changes are in most cases necessary before this suffix can be brought in contact with the stem. For these changes the following rules may be laid down:-
a) When the last letter of the singular is $a(\gamma-, v . \S 2)$, the silent $\gamma$, before the suffix, gives place to $\mathfrak{\leqslant} g$ (which is the weakened form of the restored $k$ of the parent language); e.g. بندَ banda 'a slave'

 'the dead'.

Rem. Sometimes the is retained and $g a \bar{n}$ added as a distinct suffix ; e.g. elvirرs o murda-gān. This, however, is etymologically incorrect, and is to be condemned. There is, in reality, no such suffix as $g \bar{a} r$.
b) When the singular ends in $\bar{a}\left(\vdash^{-}\right)$the letter $\mathcal{v} y$ is inserted (or restored) between it and the plur. suffix $\bar{n}$; e.g. اد L ' wise, - sage', plur. دانايان 'the wise, sages'; ' 'beggar', plur. 'beggars'. But نيا 'a grandfather', makes it plural, نيان niyagān, the old form being نياك niyāk.

Note. as an illustration of the above rule. But $\mathrm{\sigma}$ is not formed from , 'by the insertion of 5 eaphonic $v$ '; it is the plur. of the final $v$ of which is a radical letter ( $p \bar{a} y$ or $p \bar{a} \bar{i}=$ O.P. $p \bar{a} \bar{d} a): \leq$ simply the apocopated form of when a suffix with an initial vowel is to be added to a nominal stem possessing two forms, one of which is the curtailment of the other or primitive form (as is the one chosen as stem. The case of such words as $v g$, and $g$; بوى and بو, \&c., is analogons. Strictly speaking, the rule given above applies only to such nominal stems as do not possess a double form, and in which the $v$ of the plural results from the reduction of a final $k$ of the parent language; e.g. $\quad(=$ Phl. d $\bar{a} n-\bar{a} k)$, pl. ( $=$ Phl. $d \bar{a} n-\bar{a} k-\bar{a} n)$. In one modern Persian word the primitive $k$ of the Pbl . (weakened, as usual, to $g$ ) is still preserved in the plural ;
 above stated.
c) When the singular ends in $\bar{u}(, \dot{\prime})$, the following two cases arise:-

1) If the $\bar{u}$ is radical and final (i.e. is the reduction from O.P. final $u$ through Phl. $\bar{u} k$ ), the suffix $\bar{a} n$ is joined directly to the stem;



2) If the $\bar{u}$ is not originally the final radical letter, but has
 or primitive form is selected for the stem ; e.g. رور $\boldsymbol{g} \mathbf{\jmath} \boldsymbol{\jmath}$



Note 1. It is only as last member of compounds applicable to rational beings that such words as $\boldsymbol{y}$ (خ) خُؤى), and the like, can form the plural with the suffix $\bar{a} n(v, \S 19)$.
d) When the singular ends in $\bar{\imath}\left(\varsigma_{-}\right)$, or in a diphthong ( $(\sim a u$, or $v^{-} a i$ ), the suffix $\bar{a} n$ is added immediately to the stem; but the long vowel $\bar{\imath}$ breaks up into $i y$, and the diphthongs into $a v$ and $a y$

 .
 are irregular plurals of 8 ond and respectively, and do not come under the above rule ( $v . \S 19,4)$ ).
§21. The suffix $\mathrm{l}_{0}$ is, in every case but one, added to the stem

 The exception is the case in which the sing, ends in $\gamma-a$ : here the orthographic sign $\gamma$, being no longer required, is dispensed with in the plural; e.g. بيشها b̄̄sha-h $\bar{a}$ 'forests, wilds', (sing. بیشه bīsha);


Rem. The plurals of خامه, خانא, , خامه, and a few more words, are preferably written loxole, خانده, \&c., in order to distinguish them
 however, not necessary, as a jazm marked over the final consonant of the stem in the case of the words جبام, \&c. would prevent any confusion ; e.g. $6_{8}^{\circ} \mathrm{O}$ ج (v. § 20, Rem.).
§22. Spurious plurals. Besides the ordinary plurals formed with the suffixes $\bar{a} n$ and $h \bar{a}$, there is a class of artificial or 'spurious' plurals ( nouns the suffix $\vdash^{-} \bar{a} t$, the regular fem. plur. termination of the Arabic ; e.g. باغات bāgh-ät 'gardens' (sing. باغ); دِهات 'villages'.

## Accidence

 (sing. نوراز). When the singular ends in $\gamma-\bar{a}$, the 1 is replaced


§ 23. Arabic plurals (v. Ar. Section), both 'sound' and 'broken', as they are generally termed, are of very common occurrence in Persian; e.g. حاضِيٍِ2 'persons present' (the regular oblique plur. masc. of حاضِ 'present'; the nom. forms being rarely used); مخلوقات 'created things, creatures' (reg. fem. plur. of malhhlūq "created');

 words are occasionally pluralized after the model of the Arabic broken plural; as دنj', 'sensualists' (sing. j , rind). Again, as all broken plurals are regarded as feminine, the regular fem. suffix $\bar{a} t$ is added to them to form plurals of plurals; as $\operatorname{lah}$ احوالآāāt 'circumstances'
 plur. of ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ), ( $v . \S 165$, Note). The Persians, again, often form plurals by adding the suffixes $\bar{a} n$ and $h \bar{a}$ to Arabic broken plurals;

 'wonders' (from عجائب).

Note. The dual of O.P. does not appear in modern Persian. The only trace of it that exists is found in the word دويست duvist (archaic $d u v e \overline{s t})$ 'two hundred' $=0 . \mathrm{P}$. dve-sata in which dve 'two' is the dual of dva; sata is the source of the modern (سر) 'a hundred'. The Arabic dual, however, is freely used ; occasionally in the nominative, but generally in the oblique case (in place of the nom.), the final vowel $i$ of the Arabic being usually dropped; e.g. ublíg $\operatorname{jazamān~}$
 present world and the future world; oblique dual of (دا) ; 'نْاْيَن 'two shoes' (from نعل).
$\S 24$. Declension, in the real sense of the term, does not exist in modern Persian. The relations of case (حالات) are expressed by periphrasis, and by the employment of prepositions and postpositions.

[^3]a) The Nominative Case
§ 25. The nominative has no case-sign. In the singular it is always identical with the crude form of the noun.

## b) The Genitive Case

§ $26 a$. When two nouns are in a state of construction (حالبّ إضافى), the governing noun (or مُمْف) usually precedes the governed (مضافـ) يالئ muzāf ilaih), and the genitive relation is denoted by the short
 or briefly, إضافت), written (if written at all) under the last letter of the governing word when this word ends in a consonant, and pronounced enclitically with it; e.g. هرتو آفتتاب partav-i-āftāb ' ray of the sun'; بِّ 'composure of mind'; ديدنِ عجائِب 'the seeing of wonderful things'; مك


 (cf. Hasdrubal Gisgonis).
$\beta$. If the goveruing word ends in a diphthong ( $\mathscr{\sigma}^{-}$or $\mathcal{v}^{-}$), the same rule applies; e.g. مَ may-i-subh ' wine of the morning'.
$\gamma$. If the final letter of the governing noun be $v-\bar{i}$, the $v$ is generally marked with hamza ( ${ }^{〔}$ ) and the long vowel broken up into iy (in poetry, metri caus $\hat{a}$, also $\bar{\imath} y$ ); e.g. درئ
 'the sport of the revolving sphere'. As a rule, however, the hamza alone is written.
$\delta$. If the final letter of the governing word be one of the long vowels $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{u}(1-$, or,$-\dot{-})$, two cases arise, as in the formation of the plural $(v . \S 20 b, c)$.
 जg, and the like-the primitive form is adopted, and its final short vowel $\mathcal{v} i$ changed to the semi-vowel $y$; e.g. .
 father'; بوي كُر būy-i-gul 'the perfume of the rose'; روي زمين rūy-$i$-zaminn 'the face of the earth'.
2) If the long vowel is originally final (i.e. if it does not become final by the curtailment of a primitive form ending in $\mathcal{v}$ ), a $v$ (called 'the $\mathcal{E}$ of annexation') is written after it to express the $i z \bar{a} f a t$; e.g. ${ }^{2}$. $a^{2} z \bar{a} \overline{-}-i-y a k d \bar{u} g a r$ 'members one of another'
(fellow-members) ; داناى ; dān $\bar{\alpha}-i$-rū̄zgār 'the learned man of the time'; بازوى بذت ; $b \bar{a} z \bar{u}-i-b a k \underline{k} h$ 'the arm of fortune'. In poetry, final $\bar{u}$ is sometimes
 ى ${ }^{\text {g }}$ با $b \bar{a} z u-i$ or $b \bar{a} z u v-i$.
Note. By the earlier writers the $i z \bar{a} f a t$ after words ending in $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{u}$ was usually expressed by $£$, instead of $ی$; e.g. اعضاءِ يكديكر; .بازوء رُستم . This method of expression is still used after $\bar{a}$, but has become obsolete after $\bar{u}$.
$\epsilon$. Lastly, if the governing noun end in the $h \bar{a}-i-m u k h t a f \bar{i}$, the $i z \bar{a} f a t$ is expressed by hamza (written over the 8 ) and kasra (which, however, is generally omitted); e.g. بندئِ خُدا banda-i-Zkhud $\bar{a}$ 'the servant of God'; خانئ درويش khāna-i-darvissh 'the house of the poor man'. After $h \bar{a}-i-z a ̄ h i r$, the izāfat is written as kasra, e.g. ©


Note. In every one of these cases the muzäf with its muzāa ilaih must be regarded as © syntactical whole : no word or particle (except a demonstrative pronoun or an adj. of number) may properly intervene. If, therefore, the muzāff is in the dat.-acc., or in the vocative ending in $1-\bar{a}$, the postposition $\boldsymbol{J}$, of the one, or the suffix $\bar{a}$ of the other, must be joined to the muzāaf ilaih; e.g. 1 king'; برادر من 'O my brother!’
§27. A large class of words now used as prepositions, which are originally substantives in the ablative or locative case with the governing preposition suppressed, are used as $m u \bar{a} \bar{a} f$ in the construct state ; e.g. زبر زمبی (for ground' (lit. 'in the under or lower part of the ground '); بالای سرش
 (در پیشيش) 'before (lit. in front of) the father'.

Rem.a. The izäfat is partly derived from the relative pronoun hya of the O.P. In that language 'the father of the king' (ell The modern Persian, having lost the termination of the genitive case, as well as the sense of the genitive relation of the O.P., gives to the old relative pronoun the function of the genitive.

Rem.b. The hamzaye izäfat must not be confounded with the Arabic hamza. The Persian hamza represents an abbreviated $ى$.

Rem. c. In poetry, the $i z a \bar{a} f a t$ is, metri causa, often lengthened, and is then generally marked (in books printed in Europe) by a short perpendicular stroke; e.g. نكبت خڭزانی. Native writers, however, rarely mark the kasra of iza afat, except when it is long, in which case
they employ the ordinary kasra. For the uses of the Irzäfat, see Syntax (§ 70 ).

## The Possessive Genitive

The possessive genitive may also be expressed by using the preposition از, e.g. اين باغ از لیر است 'this garden is the father's'.
 (see § $62 e$ and Rem.). Or, again, by employing the word signifying 'property'; e.g. آن كتاب مالِ كيست 'whose is that book?'

## The Partitive Genitive

The preposition $j$ is also employed to denote the partitive genitive; e.g. مردى إز ايرانيان mardī az Īrānīān 'a man of the Persians'; giriftam az darāhim 'I took some of the dirhems'.

## The Genitive of Material

This same preposition is also used to express the material of which a thing is made; e.g. ديـوارى از خششت dīvārā az khhisht 'a wall of brick'. This genitive of material is the form which is preferably used when the noun is made indefinite, as in the example given. If the noun is definite the adjective denoting the material, of the form ending in يِ in in in or is used following the noun it qualifies, with
 § $70 f$ ).

## The Inverted Construction

§ 28. Relationship between two nouns in construction may be expressed by placing the governing word after the governed, in which case the kasra-i-izāfat is not required; e.g. ايران زمیین īrān zamīn

 world'. This is termed 'the inverted construction' (آفتِ مقلوب). A large number of compounds are examples of this construction;




## Dispensing with the Iẓāfat (فكاتّ إضافت)

$\S 29, a)$ In poetry, the $i z \bar{a} f a t$ is, metri caus $\hat{a}$, often dispensed with; e.g. 'If God will to disgrace a person, مَيلش اندر طانعنُ هاكان برد He inclines him to scoff at the pious' (مَوْوى روى).
In this example ${ }_{8}$ is used for ${ }_{8}^{8}$

In the Masnavī of Maulānā Rūmī，the dispensing with the izzāfat after the $h \bar{a}-i-m u k h t a f \bar{u}$ ，is extremely common．Similarly，we meet
 ＇the price of such a jewel＇，for بهای هـنين ومهر．Nor is the suppres－ sion of the izäfat restricted to a muzäf ending in silent $\gamma$ ，or in an alif－i－vast；it may occur in the case of any muräf；e．g．Maulänā Rūmī says－
＂Then I will say＂I am the son of －Christian＂＇；where for
And in Khāq̄ānī we find－

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جُمله بدين داورى بر دِر عنعا شدند }
\end{aligned}
$$

＇They all carried this quarrel to the court of the＇Anqā；for he is the ruler of the birds，and their supreme judge＇；where we have

 （which is，perhaps，general）；and in the fullowing couplet of Sa＇dỉs：
＇What is the secret of the figure of this idol of which $I$ am the first of worshippers＇（the first worshipper）？

Again，in the following verse of Anvari＇s，we find，by mere fakk－i－

＇The king，Sanjar，the least of whose servants＇．




 （Who，in this company，is a lover of speech ！＇（Zahūrī̀）．
b）But apart from such instances of the suppression of the $i z \bar{a} f a t$ by poetic licence，there are several words in respect of which usage requires that，when they stand as $m u \underset{a}{a} f$ ，the $i z a \bar{a} f a t$ be dispensed with，－and this in prose as well as verse．In some of these words （e．g． 1 to 7）this omission of the $i ⿱ 亠 乂 a \tilde{a} f a t$ appears to be general ；while
in others it is more or less common. In poetry, however, the izā fat may be restored, if the metre requires it. The following are the most important of the words so used:

1. ماحِب 'possessor, master, \&c.' ; eng. صاحبْ خان ' master of the house'; ماحبْ كَلير 'the owner of the blanket'; صاحبدل 'having (or, one who has) the heart under control, pious, good, \&c.'; ماحِبْ كال 'possessing perfection, perfect, excellent'; هاحبْ نظر 'clear-sighted, \&c.'; ماحبْ هوش

${ }^{\text {' }}$ Not even in jest does one utter a word, from which a wise man does not take some counsel to himself'. And the same poet frequently writes ماحبِ ديوان. Jāmī presents us with tl the owner of the goods'; from which the use of صاحبِ "ليم may be inferred. If the muzāf ilaih is a pronoun, or a noun determined by a demonstrative pronoun, the izāafat will, of course, be used in every case; as هاحبِ آن خانهر ; ماحب au. This remark applies to all the words which follow. See 11, note $a$.
2. سر 'head, top, end, \&c..' ; e.g. تسرانگشت 'tip of the finger';
 'thread, clue, desire, \&c.'; سرّروه 'head of a body or company of men, chief'; سیرْ 'capital, \&c..'; and many more. But the $i z a \bar{a} f a t$ is also often used, even in prose; e.g. سر ز. 'tip of the tongue';
 ' 'the head (chief) of all animals is the lion', And in poetry we find-
"The fountain-head can be stopped up 'Walk not again according to thy wont' (Sa'dī).
 of the fleet, admiral, \&c.'; ${ }^{\circ}$ 'keeper of the wardrobe'; ميرْ مبَّلِس 'governor of the feast, master of ceremonies, \&c.'
3. ولى 'successor, lord, \&c.'; erg. ولى 'successor by virtue of covenant, heir-apparent'; 'Jj 'Jj 'lord of bounty or favour, benefactor'.
4. بِّ 'Abū-bakr, the son of Said (the son) of Zangi'.
 'half a cake or loaf'.
5. Constructions of frequent use, which in course of time have become blended into compounds; e.g. آبدست (for (آب دست) 'water' for purificatory washing, ablution, \&c.'; ; آبرو 'lustre of the face, honoar'; شبخون 'a night-attack'; ; 'a pomegranate'; تلنبار 'sugar-cane'; and many more.
6. سِ 'hinderpart, back, \&e.'; e.g., تسْ 'space behind a wall, back-wall' (but هسِ ديوار 'behind the wall'); 'back of the street, back-street'; judgement'.
7. iت tah, 'bottom, depth, \&c.'; as an in 'the dust below a mat or carpet'; $x x^{\prime} \neq \underset{\sim}{\circ}$ ' 'the last (or, the dregs) of the cup'. But we also meet with ترx 'the bottom of the water'; 'تِ دل 'bottom of the heart'; and in the following couplet from an unknown poet, we have-

' Many lustrous gems in the ocean's depths are lying of which no one has knowledge'. ${ }^{1}$
8. 8 ث 'king, ruler, \&c.'; e.g. شُ جأ 'ruler of the world', - proper name; ; باْ ' بندر 'harbour-master'; and a few more.
 of the head; s woman's head-ornament'; مران 'court-yard, quadrangle', \&ce.

Note $a$. With reference to the words $\quad$, $\quad$, , and ister which the izäfat is sometimes written and sometimes suppressed, it will be observed that in the latter construction the two words form together one composite word. This is most clearly seen in the use of $س \boldsymbol{j}$; e.g.
 $i z \bar{a} f a t)$ means 'the chief part of my goods'.

Note b. The words خداوند, ايزد, \&c., when followed by the Ar. verbs
 pronounced without the kasra-i-izāfat, since they do not stand either in the relation of muzāf to the following word, or in that of mausūf.
 Khudāwand ta'āl 'God (or, the Lord) exalted be He'.

## c) The Dative Case

§ 30. The dative is formed by means of the postposition I , which may be written separately, or joined to the noun, and is never omitted; e.g. ییدر ا كتاب دادم 'I gave the book to the father';

[^4]Gray.

In e $\sqrt{1,4 L_{0}}$ 'they said to the king'. If, however, the verb at the same time governs an accusative of the direct object marked by 1 , the dative of the indirect object will be expressed by the preposition
 the book to the man'. See Syntax, Dative Case.
Rem. The postposition ) is derived from the PhI. $\bar{a} \bar{a}(=0 . P$. rādiy, locative of $r \bar{a} d$, a root which is again met with in the verbs $\bar{a}$-rās-tan, and pai-rās-tan), and originally meant 'as to, because of, for the sake of, for.' ; and, in this last sense, is still used in the phrases خدرار 'for the sake of God'; 'قفارا 'by chance'; 'زبرا 'because of this'; and in the interrogative $\rho \stackrel{\rho}{\sim}$ (for $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ 佫) 'for what? why?' and in other cases.

## d) The Accusative Case

§ 31. The accusative may be formed by adding 1 , to the noun, but l, is often omitted where no ambiguity can arise, the nominative standing for the accusative; e.g. آب ببار 'bring water'.

居 'And the slave had never seen the sea'.
In cases where the J , is essential to a right understanding of the meaning, it must be added, and is then called by grammarians jj رأى rā-i-tamizz 'the I, of specification'; e.g.

مرد شيرراكثت 'The man killed the tiger'.
§31 a. Particle of Emphasis. The particle $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{1}$ is frequently found in the works of the older writers, most commonly before the accusative or dative, but occasionally also with the nominative.

In every case its function is to emphasize or particularize the noun with which it is connected, and its translation will depend upon the nature of the sentence in which it occurs. For example:
گفتندش هحرا زينت بیّ دادى و فضيلت مر راسترا ست
"They said to him, "Why didst thou put the decoration on the left (arm), when excellence pertains especially to the right?"' (S a'dī). 'This hand of mine and this roan courser under me'.


'And on no account oppress the weak'.
'The king used to give audience to the common people especially'.
(Why do you scatter that very people?'
${ }^{1}$ The student of Urdu and Hindi will perceive that the functions of the particle $م$ are, in many respects, similar to those of the Hindi $h \bar{i}$ or $\bar{q}_{0}$

## e) The Vocative Case

§ 32. The vocative case is formed 1) by placing an interjection
 الى كدا 'O beggar'; 2) by suffixing ا二 $\bar{a}$ (called الفِ نِدا 'the alif of calling') to the nominative singular; e.g. خداي 'O friend'; جوستا ' $O$ soul'. If the noun ends in a long vowel - euphonic $\mathcal{v}$ is inserted before the alif-i-nid $\bar{a}$, which in words ending in a consonant is directly added; e.g. دانايا (from دانا) 'O learned man'. Nouns ending in هاي مُختى ( 8 - $-a$ ) do not take the suffix $\bar{a}$, but take the other form of the vocative. The same suffix is also used in exclamations; e.g. دردا 'O (my) pain!'; lievر ${ }^{\text {J }}$ ' alas!' The suffixed $\bar{a}$, in these cases, is termed الفِ نُدْبْ $a l i f i-i-n u d b a$ ' the alif of lamentation, grief, or pain' $(v . \S 44$, and Rem.).

## f) The Ablative Case

§33. The ablative is formed by means of the preposition $;$ ' from,
 poetry $a z$ is frequently contracted to $; z i$. For other uses of $j$ see § 27. The Possessive Genitive.

## g) The Locative Case

§ 34. The locative is usually expressed by means of the prepositions د 'in' and بر 'on', for which, however, w is often substituted ; e.g. در خاندر 'in the house'; 'on the wall'. In the works of the older poets we frequently meet with two prepositions in the locative case ; one (usually $x_{0}$ ) preceding the noun, and the other ( اندر ( L or, or بر) following it; e.g. بدريا در. 'in the sea'; بشكر اندر 'in thankfulness'; بكوه ' 'on the mountain'. The second preposition in such examples is, by native grammarians, usually termed redundant ( $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{s}}^{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{j}$ ); but its function seems to be to extend the meaning of the first; e.g. ba daryäd dar 'in the sea ( $د$ ) if you enter it (w))'.

## h) Instrumental Case

This case is most usually expressed by the preposition w, occasionally by $ب$ and less commonly by $ز$.
One may stop the fountain-head with a spade'.
i) Sociative Case

This case is expressed by the preposition 4 .
با قافلٌُ حبـاز بششهر در آمبر 'Entered the city with the caravan from the Hijīazz'.

Rem. Most native grammarians recognize only three grammatical eases, viz. the nominative (حالتِ فائلى); the genitive (حالت إضافی); and the dat.-accusative (حالت (حالت (حنر). The ablat.-locative they call مجرور و P ' ' the (object) attracted and the (prep.) attracting (it)'; and the vocative they term

§35. The following will serve as an example of the declension of a Persian substantive:

## Singular

Nom. لیی father.
Gen. خانر), (خانر), (the house) of the father.



Abl.
Loc. بر هر هدر or in, or on, the father.
[Inst. بنيز with a spear.]
Sociative با بير with the father.

## Plural

تحرَان fathers.
(خانهای) (خ درانی (the houses) of the fathers.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { بیرانرانران }\end{array}\right\}$ بیران
 O fathers. از from (or by) the fathers. بر هدران or or in, or on, the fathers.
[4 4 g. with sticks.]
با هِران with the fathers.

## II. THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

§36. The indefinite article (ياي وحدت 'the $\mathcal{G}$ of unity', and ئي 'the of indefiniteness') is expressed in Persian by an $ى-\bar{\imath}$ (originally, and, in India, still $\bar{e}$ ) affixed to a noun; e. g. مردی mardī (archaic mardē) 'a man'; © 'a 'a deer';
 person, some one'; 'some one, a certain one, $a$. The difference between 'the $\mathcal{v}$ of unity' and 'the $\mathcal{v}$ of indefiniteness' is this, that the former can be replaced by the word 'one' (e.g. or ( a man, or one man'), while the latter cannot. The $v$ which
 'some one said'. After a noun ending in $8-a$, the indefinite article,

followed by the verb is to be pronounced with that verb as though it were ايست, and in this form the verb is generally written ; e.g. نامس ' ايست 'it is a letter’, though the form jormissible.

Note. The affix ' $v$ ' sometimes expresses respect or greatness (
 'Love is a great calamity'. It also conveys the idea of totality; as خلقى 'a (whole) people, the nation'; عالى 'a (whole, or vast) world', and is called ياى تاكيد 'the intensive $y \bar{a}$ '.
Rem. The indefinite article, $\bar{\imath}(\bar{e})=$ Phl. $\bar{e}$, $\bar{v} v$ 'one' $(=$ O.P. aiva $)$. The modern Persian numeral $\operatorname{sk}$ 'one', is derived from the Phl. évak $(\bar{e} v+a k)$. In the parent language, $\bar{e}, \bar{e} v$, 'one, $a$ ', preceded the substantive ; in Persian it follows, but as an independent word, not as a suffix.

## III. THE ADJECTIVE (ifat)

$\S 37$ a. Persian adjectives are indeclinable. Used attributively, the adjective may either precede or follow 'the described or qualified' substantive (the مَوْوْوْ $)$, but it more commonly follows. Examples of the adj. preceding are خوب آ $\mathrm{k} h \overline{\mathrm{~T}} \overline{\mathrm{u} b} \bar{a} d a m$ 'an excellent (or, a fine) man'; hushīvār dastūr 'a wise minister'; نيلك nردمان nīk mardumān 'good men'.
b. When the adjective follows the substantive, the two are connected
 mard-i-nīk 'a good man'; مردانِ دلاور mardān-i-dilārar 'the valiant men'; عمر دراز 'umr-i-darāzz 'a long life'; عرى 'umrhā-i-darāz
 بندرُ وفادار 'a faithful slave'; 'faithful slaves'. In this construction the mausü̆ and the sifat are to be regarded as a syntactical whole, no word or particle can be interposed ( $v . \S 26$, Note). The may, however, be strengthened by another adjective or an adverb; e.g. بندهُ بسيا, وفادار banda-i-bisyär wafädār 'a very faithful slave'.
c. An Arabic adjective also may either precede or follow the substantive it qualifies, and the construction, as regards the use or non-use of the kasra-i-tausifit, will be the same as in the case of a purely Persian adjective. But Arabic adjectives are declinable; and when such an adjective follows the qualified noun, it often agrees in gender, and (chiefly in prose) even in number, with the qualified substantive ( $v . \S 18, R e m$. ). The rules for agreement or non-agreement may be sammarized as follows:-

Concord of Adjective and Substantive. a) An Arabic adjective, following a Persian substantive which denotes an irrational being or
an inanimate object, is not declined. But if a substantive denoting a rational being of the female sex, is followed by an adjective of the measure فاعِل, or
 'the intelligent daughters'; زنِ جهيل 'the beartiful woman'. If, however, a word (or words) intervene, the adjective will take the form of the masculine; as زنى جِسْيار عاقِل 'a very intelligent woman'. Adjectives of other measures generally take the masculine form.
$\beta$ ) If the adjective and substantive are both Arabic, the following cases arise:
10. When the substantive is in the singular the adjective usually agrees with it in gender and number; e.g. ذِك 'a fair fame';
 of


Note, that nouns ending in a servile (orig. $\overline{8}$ ) are more commonly followed by a masculine adjective ; e.g. and a reprehensible life'; ; (as كمّلى , \&c.) are used in the masculine or feminine at the discretion of the writer, and often with regard to the rhythm of the sentence.
$2^{\circ}$. When the substantive is in the dual number, or a plur. sanus masc., the adjective will usually agree with it in gender and number; e.g. 'impious infidels'. But, in the case of the plur. sanus, the adjective may also take the form of a broken plural; as an teachers of truth' ( كرام plur. of
$3^{\circ}$. If the substantive is a fem. plur. sanus the adjective may take the same form, but it is more commonly put in the fem. singular ;

 كهالاتِ خامّه 'special perfections'.
$4^{\circ}$. If the substantive is a broken plural and applicable to rational beings, the adjective may be either a broken plural, or a masc. plur. sanus, or it may be put in the feminine singular; e.g. g.

 doctors'.
$5^{\circ}$. If the substantive is a broken plural not applicable to rational beings, the adjective is generally in the sing. feminine; but it may


 'strong and vehement oaths'; pages (writings) of the sages'.
d. The Predicative Adj. A predicative adjective, whether Arabic or not, will always take the form of the masculine singular.
§ 38. If an adjective follows a substantive having 'the $\mathcal{G}$ of unity or indefiniteness' attached to it, the izāafat is omitted, and the
 excellent man'; عبارتى ديگر 'another phrase'. But the $ى$ may be attached to the adjective instead of the substantive, and then the
 'a very beautiful garden'. If, however, the adjective precede the substantive the $\mathcal{v}$ or " of indefiniteness must be affixed to the noun;
俍 'a hungry dog was eating a dry bone'. Similarly, if the substantive is in the plural, it alone takes the v; e.g. مردمانى خخب '(some) good men'; بِّدكانى صادق 'true (or loyal) servants'.
§ 39. Adjective used as a Subst. An adjective, whether Persian or Arabic, may be used substantively, and in that case it will be treated in every respect as a substantive; e.g. دان 'a learned man'; (the learned men of the age'; جاهِانِانِ 'an ignorant man';
 poems'.

In the rare cases which occur of a noun in the plural number in construction with what appears to be an adjective also in the plural it is generally considered that the 'adjective' is used substantively in apposition. Such instances are-

| Faithful servants | بندكِّن مُمْ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Worldlywise sages | ) |
| Valiant heroes | مردانِ دِلاورانِ |

## Degrees of Comparison

$\S 40 \mathrm{a}$. The comparative degree of adjectives (Persian or Arabic) is formed by adding the suffix,$\quad$ tar to the positive, and the superlative by adding ببهتربن 'best'; بدتر ' (generally contracted to بلر 'bad' بترّ battar, and often to بـبـر batar) 'worse', بدتربن (contracted to بتّرينر) 'worst';

فافِل 'excellent', فاضلتر 'more excellent', فاضلترين 'most excellent', 'the clearest proof'.
b. These suffixes are even added to Arabic comparatives and superla-

 the masc. compar. and superlative of
c. The same suffixes are annexed to adverbs and prepositions which were originally substantives; e.g. بر 'upon, above', برتر (Phl. abar-tar)
 דیشتريِن 'most forward, foremost'; ; ; ; 'under', زيرتر ' (Phl. az-er-tar) ‘lower', زيرتريرِ ' 'lowest, nethermost’.

Rem. In the formation of the comparative, Persian follows its parent the Phl., which used the suffix tar to form the comparative, and the suffix tüm to form the superlative. Of the suffix tūm no trace appears in Persian. To form the superlative Persian hạs recourse to a process peculiarly its own, viz. the intensifying of the comparative by the addition to it of the suffix $\bar{i} n$-the suffix which it also employs to form the superlative of eminence from the positive (v. § 42).
§41. The adjectives 'good', S'little, few', § 'little, small', w 'great', are also often used with a comparative sense without the addition of the suffix $\pi,=m$ in the following from Jāmī:


This will, in every case, be readily perceived from their construction as comparatives (v. §42). Similarly بیش 'before'; 'much, more'; افزورن 'in excess, much, more', are used in both the positive and comparative sense, inasmuch as the comparative sense is inherent in them.

Rem. The O.P. employed the two following sets of suffixes for the formation of comparatives and superlatives, the first of which were added to the root of the adjective, and the second to its base or stem :

## Comparative

1. $y a \hbar\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { corresponding to S. īyas ; } \\ \text { Gr. cav ; Lat. ior ; Eng. er. }\end{array}\right\}$
2. tara (S. tara; Gr. тepos).

## Superlative

$$
\text { ista }\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\text { S. ishtha ; Gr. ıбtos ; } \\
\text { Lat. iss- ; Eng. est. }
\end{array}\right\}
$$ tama (S. tama; Lat. imus).

The second of these sets became, in Phl., tar, and tūm, of which tar alone has been preserved in Persian. Of the first set the only traces of the comparative that remain are found in the words $x, S, \& c$. (§ 41). The words 'good' and 'better' were expressed in O.P. by
valu and vah-yah; and in Phl. these distinct positive and comparative forms are both reduced to the one form veh, whence the Persian w bih. It is the consciousness of the twofold origin of the form bih that has led to its use in both a positive and comparative sense. The case of the adjectives $S, \& c \cdot$, is analogous. It follows, then, that 'better' may be expressed by so of the rest. The O.P. superlative ending in ista is found in the two Persian words بهشت bihisht 'paradise' (Phl. vehesht; Z. vahishta), and
$\S 42 a$. Construction of the Comparative. As regards the construction of the comparative, two methods are employed:
$1^{1}$. The object with which the comparison is made is put in the ablative; e.g.

A more ill-starred wight than one who oppresses men there is not'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { خرِ باربر بِّ از شيرٍ مردمر } \\
& \text { than the man-rending lion'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بادنيانت تر و با امانت تر تر مردى نيست }
\end{aligned}
$$

'Than thee there is no man more pious, and more devout and more free from greed and more honest and more trustworthy'.
$2^{2}$. The 'than' of comparison is also expressed by the conjunction $₹$ following the adjective, especially with abstract ideas; as,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { 'Thy death were better than } \\
\text { afflicting mankind'. }
\end{gathered}
$$

هزار چشم هینان كور بِهتركه آفتّاب سِياها blind than the sun dark'.
بازوى . بخت بِم S بازوى سخت 'The fortunate arm (is) better than the strong arm'.
b. Construction of the Superlative. The superlative, also, when expressing comparison, is constructed in three ways:
$1^{\circ}$. By putting the object with which the comparison is made after it, in the genitive plural; e.g. خذا بِترِِِّ یֶادشاهان است 'God is the best of kings'.
$2^{\circ}$. By putting the noun in the plural with ; after the superlative adjective; as بِهترِين از پادشاهان 'the best of kings'.
30. By using the singular after the superlative adj. without the $i z a ̈ f a t$; e.g. بدترين دشهن الينسبت كم دو عهل يك مرد را فرمايد 'the worst enemy (of the state) is he who gives two offices to one man'.
' I will not say that I have given a most precious jewel to a most renowned husband '.
c. The comparative sometimes suffices to express the superlative;
 best thing is, that...'; or by using it after lb ' 'of all', از هـه ' اير است 'this is best of all'.

Adverbial Superlative. The utmost possible degree is expressed by prefixing of or ه ه ه ه as quickly as possible' (cf. Lat. quam celerrime; Gr. ©́s $\tau \dot{\chi} \chi(\sigma \tau \alpha)$.

Rem. In the constructions of the comparative Persian follows the methods of the PhI. and the O.P.; but in those of the superlative it follows the O.P. in the first of the three cases noticed above, and the Phi. in the second.

## The Superlative of Eminence

§ 43. The superlative of eminence (or, of diminution) is formed by adding the suffix $\bar{i} n$, or $\bar{i} n a$, to a simple adjective, or to an adverb or preposition (originally a noun) ; egg. بريد. 'uppermost, highest' (from بَر 'up'), as خلِدِ بربن 'the highest (stage of) Paradise';
 'best, most excellent' (from yo 'good'); as 'the best of
 'least' (from $S$ 'little'). Similarly are formed

 ' فرجام 'end '); (see Suffixes, § 118).

## Intensive Adjectives

$\S 44 a$. The adjective may be strengthened by placing before it one or other of the following words: بس or or 'much, very much';


 خوب 'very beautiful'; سخكت سُست 'very limp, or slack, or weak'; نياك سهل 'very easy'.
b. The comparative alone sometimes occurs with an intensive
 keeps the garden very (or quite) green in the season of autumn'. But the comparative, and the superlative also, may be strengthened
like the positive ; eng. بسى 'very much better'; ' خيلى متبولت 'much lovelier'; نيك سهالترِين 'very much the easiest'.
c. The repetition of an adjective sometimes has the effect of enhancing its degree, as in the following couplets:
'The horsemen of Persia, valiant heroes, came forth from the Court utterly confounded'.
'Let death come to me, that I may clasp him tightly to my bosom '.
نـرمك نِمكه لبان كَشُود بنـنده
'Very gently he parted his lips in a smile'.
d. The repetition of a substantive, also, sometimes conveys the sense of an intensive adjective; e.g. جهان جهان 'آفربن 'unbounded praise' (lit. ' worlds of praise'); and
وَانرا كک چو تو نِگار در بر بايد دامن دامن كُله كُله زربايد
'And he who would take to his bosom a sweetheart like thee, ought to be possessed of boundless wealth', (دامن دامن 'skirtfuls of'; كلع 'capfuls of'). Similarly, a simple adj. used substantively, and put in construction with itself, has an intensive signification; as in the following couplet from Nizāmī:-

- Though, in the estimation of lovers, I should become the very worst of men (lit. ' the bad of the bad'), even so, it is better that self should be the object of my love'.


## The Adjective of Astonishment or Admiration

§45. The adjective of astonishment also belongs distinctly to the class of intensive adjectives. It is formed by adding the suffix $1^{-}$ (الفِب مُبالغه) to the simple adjective; as 'how bad! or very bad' (is); بُزُرَ, 'بُرا 'how great, very great' (is); بسا 'how many'! خوشا 'how pleasant! how lovely'! In construction it usually precedes the substantive, which often has s redundant 1, called الف 'calif of ornamentation of speech', or الفـ مدّ هِوت 'alif of extension of sound of the voice', affixed to it; eeg. بدا سلطانِيَّا ك 'how bad (or very bad)
 'how beautiful (is) Shīrāz'!
Rem. The alif at the end of the adjective is by some termed 'the alif of
excess '; while that at the end of the substantive is called الفـ زائد 'the redundant alif'. It is the latter alif that also occurs in the
 or O.P., it has its origin in modern Persian, and is probably derived from the Arabic: cf. the final alif in the Ar. و, 'Oh Zaid'! ion ing


## IV. THE NUMERALS (اسهاى اعداد)

A. The Cardinal Numbers (اسهاى اعدادِ ذاتيّيا)
§46. The following are the cardinal numbers :-
Units (abl)
1.1 يك (Phl. êrak; O.P. aiva). 5. o (O.P. pañcha).
2. $r$ (O.P. dva).
6. ч شش (O.P. khhshvash).
3. r.
7. , هفت (O.P. hapta).
4. $\vee$ ر.
8. ه هشت (O.P. ashta). 9. 9 نُ (O.P. nava).

Tens (عشرات)
10. 1. $\quad$ (poet. also) د (O.P. dasa).
11. يازذده (Dialec.) يانزد (O.P. aivadasa).
12. ir دورازوره (O.P. dvadasa).
13. سينزده (O.P. thridasa).
14. 14 .
15. 10 إنزده (O.P. pañchadasa).
16. 14 شانزده (OP. khhshvashdasa).
17. Ir هِفده (O.P. haptadasa).


20. r.
30. r. $\quad$ (Phl. sīh; O.P. thrisat).
40. 上. لهِ

60. 4. شصت شست (Por orig. شست (Phl. shasht ; O.P. khshvashti).
70. v. هنغتاد (Phl. haftāt; O.P. haptaiti).
80. ^. هششتاد (Phl. hashtāt ; O.P. ashtaiti).
90. 9. $\quad \operatorname{chg}^{\text {(Phl. navat ; O.P. navaitr). }}$

## Accidence



## Thousands (il)



100,000. هد هزار هار

. دور كرور = $1,000,000$.
§47. The numerals which indicate numbers compounded of the units and the tens, hundreds, \&c., are formed by placing the highest number first, the others following in order, and each being connected with the preceding number by the conjunction, 'and'; as بیست 'twenty and one, twenty-one'; one thousand and eight hundred and ninety and three'.

Note 1. The same construction is occasionally employed by some of the older poets in the case of the numbers between 10 and 20 ; e.g. in the Shāhnāma we meet with $و$ و داه و دو and 'ten and two, twelve'. The Turkī word تومان tūmän is also used to express 10,000 ; but only (according to Kazimirski) in such constructions as
 of the value of 10,000 dīnārs. ( 1 tūmān $=10$ qirāns $=10,000$ dīnārrs.) The word of miliyūn 'a million', borrowed from Europe, is also used in the language of the present time.

Note 2. In the language of the present day, the particle $b$ ( $v$. § 53) is affixed to the numerals to denote the individuals; e.g. دو ' 'two',

§ 48. The cardinals are not inflected. The exceptions to this rule are the numerals هo and 0 , which, as collective nouns, take the plural suffix; e.g. صدها 'hundreds'; هزاران and هزارها 'thousands'. Nor, with the exception of 'one', do the numerals have the $y \bar{a}-i$-tankīr affixed to them.
§ 49. The numeral adjective (اسم_ عَدَرَ) usually precedes the substantive which denotes 'the things numbered' (the ofor), which is always in the singular; as جهار زن 'four women'; (t) 'ten horses'; J stantive is made indefinite by means of the ياي تنكير to denote an
approximate number ( $\$ 36$ ), it will precede the numeral; e.g. سالى دور


Rem. In the older poetry many examples of the ages being in the plural are to be found.

Words used idiomatically in numbering. In the enumeration of different sorts of objects some collective numeral or noun (such as 'head', 'brace', 'pair', \&c.), applicable to the things numbered, is frequently inserted between the numeral and its هعدود. The following are some of the words most commonly so used: 'ie 'individual' (for human beings) ; سأ 'head' (for horses); 'head' (for sheep); ; ;
 \&c.) ; طاقه 'fold, part' (for shawls, \&c.); ناّ (for clothes); and sometimes for houses; ${ }_{2}{ }_{2}$ 'volume' (for books); فرش (for carpets); *قضض 'handle, handful' (for swords, daggers, \&c.); 'piece' (for villages, \&c.); عرَّرّب (for ships); rebel 'piece' (for boats, small birds, \&c.); xis 'grain' (for seeds, small fruits, pearls, \&c.) ; عَّد ' number' (for chairs, tables, \&c.); باب 'door' (for buildings).
N.B. These words are never constructed with the izāfat; e.g. (بيست ie foot, twenty persons on foot'; در 'أس 'ten head (of) horse, ten horses';
 'three apples';

## B. The Ordinal Numbers (اسهاي اعدادِ وصفيّه)

§50. The ordinals are formed from the cardinals by the addition of the suffix $\stackrel{\sim}{-}^{-}$; and to the ordinals so formed (with the exception of optionally superadded; e.g.
'first';



and so on of the rest. In the case of compounds, the last member alone takes the suffix -um; as بيست , 'twenty-fourth'; , one hundred and first'. In place of , to , the ordinal

1 Written thus to avoid confusion with ' third'.
 the Ar. الّالين (avoal + Pers. suff. inn). Similarly, instead of لدوّل the word دیر ديخر (the latter chiefly in poetry and in compounds) is sometimes employed; and for wher si mi digar is met with in the older writers. The primitive significations of the last two are (ديور)
 these significations are common in Persian also.

Rem. The suffix $u m=$ Phl. $\bar{u} m=$ O.P. $a m a: \bar{\imath} n$ is the same suffix that is employed to form the superlative: nukhust = Phl. nakhust (an obscure form): ديخر= Phl. datī-gar = O.P. duvitīya +karam'making second': sidīgar $=$ Phl. sitī-gar $=$ O.P. thritiya + karam. The word is always written, سكديك, as though it were compounded of $s i$ and dīgar.
§51. The ordinal generally follows the substantive (or or or ) ; as , بوزِ دوم 'the second day'. But the forms ending in -īn may also precede the maidūd; e.g. دوهين روز 'the second day'; ' 'the first enemy who ...'

## C. Distributive Numerals

§52. Distributives are formed 1) by the repetition of a simple cardinal, or of a cardinal strengthened by the qualificative suffix an (before which a final $k$ of the stem is usually weakened to $g$ ); as
 was slaughtering the sheep one by one'; دست يُان يكان بركتف بستـن 'they bound their hands behind their backs one after the other'; زه insertion of the letter 1- $\bar{a}$ (الغي رإِطه) 'to', or the preposition 'with', between the repeated cardinals; e.g. يكايل 'one by one'; دو با دو 'two at a time'; 3) by adding to the cardinal eve the suffix 1 -, or sil- $\bar{a} n a$, and to any one of the other cardinals, $ن 5(=\mathrm{Phl}$. $a k+$ suff.
 'two by two'; صدكا 'a hundred at a time'.

Rem. $1=\bar{a}$ existed in the old Iranian as an independent preposition, but is not found in Phl. In modern Persian it is only used in compounds, such as as برابر bar- $\bar{a}$-bar 'breast to breast', سرابا '(from) head to foot', لبالب 'lip to lip'. The $g$ which enters into the so-called suffix $g \bar{a} n$ or $g \bar{a} n a$, is really the final $k$ of the stem of the parent Phl. It should be borne in mind that, for the most part, Persian does no more than simply modify such forms as already existed in Phl. or

$\bar{a} n-a k$ modified; and, by analogy, $d u g a \bar{n} n=\mathrm{Phl} . d u(k)+\operatorname{suff} . \bar{a} n$, and so on of the rest. The so-called suffix $g \bar{a} n$ or $g \bar{a} n a$, then, is, in reality, composed of $\alpha k$ (the ending of the Phl. stem) + suff, $\bar{a} n$, or + suff. $\bar{a} n+$ suff. $a k$. The forms chahār $-\bar{a} n, ~ y a g \bar{a} n, d u g \bar{a} n, ~ \& c .$, are not plurals. It is the adjectival $\bar{a} n$ which is employed in the words
 form of دِهگان or on 'village chief '; \&c. (see the chapter on Suffixes).

## D. Multiplicative Numerals

§ 53. Multiplicatives are formed by adding to a cardinal, 1) the suffix


 e.g. دوتن 'twofold, double, twice as much'; 6) برابر 'equal'; e.g. an ant having lifted a locust ten times its own size".

Rem. The ending -gana is identical with that noticed in §52. $\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{Phl} . t \bar{a} k$ ' a branch'; $y$ is modern Persian, and signifies ' a fold'; $\mathcal{G}$ g is said by Darmesteter ${ }^{1}$ to be the personal pronoun of the third person ; although he suggests that it may be a form of aiva denoting unity. For chand, see § 67. In the current speech of Persia, the suffix $t \bar{a}$ is also used with the cardinals ( $v . \S 47$, Rem. $b$ ).

## E. Approximate Numbers

$\S 54$, a) An approximate number or quantity, and the like, is expressed 1) by adding the termination -gān or -gāna to a cardinal
 about eight'; 2) by connecting the indefinite noun of number $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$ and 'somewhat' \&c. (v. § 67) with a cardinal by means of the conjunction,
 ' ${ }^{\text {ه }}$ بار واند more beautiful than the sun, a hundred times and more'.
b) Approximation may also be expressed by an adjective or
 'about', \&c., in construction with the numeral and its ma'dūd; e.g.
 'about twenty tomāns'.
c) Also by two numbers following one another; e.g.jg زو (or) three days', 'ten (or) fifteen men'.
d) Also by affixing the to the noun and following it with the numeral ; e.g. دينارى ها نصد '500 dīnārs or so'.

Percentage is expressed as follows:-4 per cent. $=$ on iD 'four in each hundred'. At the rate of 99 per cent. $=$ Jj


Rem. In the case of approximate numbers, the 'Specification' ( - gāna are the same as those used to form distributives, \&c.

## F. Fractional Numbers (اسهاي اعدادِ مُكسّر)

§55. Fractions which have the unit (1) for their numerator are expressed as follows: $\frac{1}{3}=$ يك ( $=$ Phi. si-ēvale 'of three, one'); $\frac{1}{4}=$ =
 Sַ (= Phi. nimak; Z. naēma), or more commonly by the Arabic $\operatorname{jisff}$. The same fractions may also be expressed by means of the genitive $;$; as يكى از سه، 'one of three, one-third'; and this is the method adopted when the numerator exceeds 1 ; e.g.部 'two-thirds'; دو از از fractional numbers are employed for the denominator the numerator
 In mixed numbers, the integer, as in English, precedes the fraction; as ${ }^{\text {as }}$, 'one and $=$ half'; ; 'three and one-fourth'.

## G. Adverbial Numbers

§ 56. Numeral adverbs are formed by adding to the cardinals, 1) the subst. بار (or بار ) 'time', or one of the synonymous Arabic words

 especially the latter; as دو g دندان 'twice as much, double'. The plural $\quad$ (of $ب ا$ ) $=$ 'many times, repeatedly, often'. In the multiplication table the word , is not used: its place is taken by the preposition د; د e.g. 'four times four' is expressed by


## V. THE PRONOUN (اسم_ضمير)

## 

§57. The personal pronouns are of two kinds, 1) the separate or


## 1) The Independent Pronouns

These are 0 man ' $I$ '; g tu 'thou'; g $\bar{u}$ (archaic $\bar{o}$ ), v' vac, or slue (old), 'he, she, or it'. They are declined like substantives; as

## First Person (

## Singular

Nom. - 'I'.
Gen. (خازء) مس ، 'the house) of me'.
Dat. $\left\{\begin{array}{cc}1 & m a-r a ̃ \\ 0 & \text { o ri } \\ \text { bi man }\end{array}\right\}$ ' to me'.
Acc. مرا $m a-r \bar{a}$ 'me'.
Abl. ازمس az man 'from me'. \&c.

## Plural

Io $m \bar{a}$ 'we'.


, 1 م $m \bar{a}-r \bar{a}$ 'us'.
Lo ${ }^{\prime}$ az $m \bar{a}$ 'from us'.
\&c.

Rem. The dat. and acc. $\operatorname{mar} \bar{a}=\operatorname{man}+r a$, with the $n$ elided. Instead of the nom. plur. ma the redundant form مايان. (and, at the present time, 10 Lo) is sometimes used $=$ 'people such as we are'.

## Second Person (ضهير مُماطب).

Nom. تو 'thou'.
Gen. تو (the side) of thee'.

Acc. $\quad$, $t u-r \bar{a}$ ' thee'.
$\& \mathrm{c}$.

شُهـا shumā 'you'.
(سـراي) (the house) of you'.

ا, آشه shumā-rāa 'you'. \&c.

Note. The vowel of $g$ is short (the $g$ not being a letter but merely a prop for the rama, see $\S 3, b$ ), and in the dat.-acc. the $g$, being no longer necessary, is dropped (in poetry, however, the, of $t u$ is often reckoned as a letter for scansion). The, likewise disappears when the pronoun is immediately followed by the subst. verb است, and the hamza of ast is, at the same time, dropped; thus, تو است is reduced to شهايان (and, in the current speech, (شه) 'people of your position' is occasionally met with.

## Third Person (ضميرِ غائب) <br> Singular

Nom. $I$, sg, and (old) v gl, 'he, she, it'.
Gen. $\quad y^{\prime}(د \mathrm{~J})$, or N g (دل) ' (the heart) of him', \&c.




## Plural

Nom. ايشان īshān (archaic èshān) 'they'.
Gen. (خانهای) ايشانان (خان (the houses) of them'.

Acc, اليشانرا 'them'.

Note. The Turanian pronoun $v \boldsymbol{v}^{-}$is more common in the oblique cases than in the nominative case. $v^{-}$is, however, very commonly used by some authors as a nominative; e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (Nizāmu-l-Mulk) نداست كم ؤى بهرام است است }
\end{aligned}
$$

The $s d$ in the dative forms a , \&cc., is not 'euphonic' $: b a d=$ Phl. pat, which is reduced in Persian to the two forms $b a d$ and $b a$, the second of which is the ordinary form of the preposition; the first is only used before pronouns that have hamza (1) for their initial letter; in which case the hamza disappears. Similarly, the hamza of,$l$ is
 and, in poetry, after the adverbs 'even', "ور 'like', and the conjunction Sַ; as ham- $\bar{\sim}$ 'even he';
 also, may be dropped after the prepositions $j, \rho$, and ر. Again, if the copula است immediately follows the pronoun, $\mid$, it loses its initial hamza; thus اوست list (archaic ōst). The vecomesal terminations $ا$, ايم \&c., in the same position, undergo a like change,

 instead of ايشار, always in relative sentences. 'They who' = آنانكه .

Rem. Instead of the pronoun of the first person, the speaker always uses some such word as 8 بند. 'the slave, (your) humble servant'; or صمْ مُمْ ' (your) sincere friend', \&c.; and in a following sentence, may use the pronoun مه 'I'.

Note. The application of ايشان g ايش should properly be restricted to rational beings; or (according to some writers) to animate and

intelligent objects (ذِّى شُهُور); inanimate objects (if not personified) being referred to by the demonstrative pronoun |  |
| :---: | $\bar{a} n$. But this rule is not strictly observed, even by classical writers. Indeed, the older writers frequently apply the pronoun $\mid \bar{u}$ to inanimate objects, where 110 personification is intended, and, occasionally, even apply $\mathcal{U}^{\top} \bar{a} n$ to animate objects.

§58. The independent pronouns differ from substantives in two particulars: $1{ }^{0}$ with the exception of the second person, they cannot form the vocative case: $2^{\circ}$ excepting $\sim_{\text {' }} I$ ', and $L_{0}$ 'we', they cannot be constructed with a following adjective; e.g. it is allowable to say (ماي شوخ شیشم ; 'helpless I' we presumptuous ones'; but the other pronouns are rarely, if ever, so used. They may, however (as well as the pronoun of the first person), be followed by an adjective

 rich people; or, we, who are rich '; شها 'you, who are intelligent'. These exceptions apart, the pronouns may form any case, or may stand as muzāf ilaih or 'governed noun' to il muzäf in any case, except the vocative (u alone, being excepted); e.g. بدل 'to
 with the muãäf in the vocative, of alone is possible; as برادر 'O my brother'! (v. § 26, Note).

Note. The personal pronoun is included in the verb, the termination of which is of itself sufficient to determine the person. The expression of the independent pronoun, generally speaking, serves to mark a degree of emphasis. If respect in addressing, or in speaking of, a person is intended, the plural pronoun may be used instead of the singular. But the poets often use the plural in a very loose fashion, passing in the same sentence from the plural to the singular, and vice versâ; e.g.
نَّك، دار مار ز زاءٍ خطا خطا دركذر و موابم نها
' Keep us ( $m \bar{a}-r \bar{a})$ from the path of error: overlook wrong-doing and show me ( $-a m$ ) that which is right' ( $\mathrm{Sa}^{\circ} \mathrm{di}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ).

Rem. $\operatorname{man}=$ O.P. mana, genitive of $a d a m$ 'I' (Z. azem; S. aham); C $m \bar{b}=$ O.P. amākham, gen. plur. of adam. g tu = O.P. tava, gen. sing. of tuvam'thou' (Z. tūm; S. tvam); اه $\operatorname{shum\overline {a}=\text {O.P.kh}shmākham,~}$ the gen. plur. of the same pron. , $\bar{u}(\bar{o})=$ Pāz. $\bar{o}=$ the O.P. ava;

 $s$ doublet of s l.

## 2) Tre Affixed Pronouns

$\S 59, a$. The enclitic or affixed pronouns are-

|  | Singular |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st Person | $\therefore \operatorname{\sim am~(¢T~am,~yam).~}$ |
| 2nd " |  |
| 3rd |  |

## Plural

1st Person 0.
2nd ", بَ
3rd ", نشَ
These are employed, a) in the genitive (possessive) ; and b) in the objective, as the direct object (accusative), or the indirect object (dative). If the word to which anyone of them is to be affixed ends in $n$ consonant, or in the vowel $\bar{\imath}$, or a diphthong, the unbracketed forms $-\frac{-}{-}$, \&c., must be used, and its fatha given to the final letter of the stem; but, in the case of the plural enclitics, only when they are employed as possessives. The forms $\Gamma, \ldots, \ldots$, , 1 , are used when the word to which they are affixed ends in $8-\infty$; and the forms يمأ, \&c. (with inserted $y$ ) when the stem to which they are joined has $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{u}$ for its final letter; but, in the case of the plural enclitics, only when they form possessives. The $y$, however, with its fatha, may be optionally dropped.
N.B. In the Shāhnama \&c., the enclitics of the plural occur frequently with no vowel sound between them and the word they follow. The enclitic $\sim$ of the third person sing. is sometimes used by older poets for the nominative case, e.g. in the Shāhnāmu:
'he seized a stone, \&c.' The 'enclitic' form of the pronoun is also used apart from and preceding its noun; e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ज }
\end{aligned}
$$

Rem. Native grammarians make the connecting vowel, in the case of the plural enclitics, kasra instead of fatha; in other words, they regard the enclitic as the musaf ilaih in the construct state; e.g. they say نإِ
a) The Possessive ( the enclitic is affixed (usually, in prose; but not so in poetry) to its governing noun (oمافـ) ; as
 door' (acc.); بر 'upon (or, at) my door', \&\&c.; ; ترَ درَ 'thy slave';

 bīniyat 'thy nose' (from bīn̄̄; in poetry, also bīnīyat بينْيْت) (ب) .

Rem. In poetry, the connecting vowel may, metric caus $Q$, be elided;


(2) باندا 'my house'; بندهات 'thy slave'; ديدهات 'his eye'. But,

 feet' (but we also meet with جاش 'his place '; درْهاش 'د 'his dirhems';


 'their ringlets'. But the forms without inserted $y$ after $u$ rarely occur in prose.

Note. If the governing word is in construction with an adjective, the affixed pronoun will, of course, come after the adjective ( $v . \S 26$,




Rem.a. In poetry (especially in the older poems), the possessive pronoun is sometimes separated from its muäaf; as
 'put cotton into my ear'. In some instances this is, perhaps, the result of pure licence; but, in most cases the construction is so strikingly in accord with the law that determined the position of the enclitic in the parent-language-viz. that it should be affixed to some word preceding the governing noun-as to preclude the supposition that it is the result of mere licence or accident. Sometimes the possesside pronoun is affixed to the verb itself, and so is likely to be mistaken for the objective ; e.g.
تولّايِ مردايِ آن هاكِ بوم . برانییيذتم خاطر از شام و روم

- Affection for the men of that blest land, detached my heart from Syria and Asia Minor'; where برنغيخت خاطرم =برانگينیتم خاطر (i.e. خاطر مرا).

[^5]Rem.b. The plurals شان, تان , مان , are less common in prose than in verse. Prose writers exhibit a preference for the independent pronouns شا شها , ايشان as muzāf ilaih.
b) The Objective Pronoun (ضهير منعول). When the affixed pronoun is employed in the dative or accusative, its position is free, especially in poetry. It may be attached to the verb; as ديدمَ 'I saw thee'
 'I asked him' (= urrā pursīdam); or, if it be a compound verb, to one of the members; as ملاتتَش كردم 'I reproached him' (=ūurā malämat kardam) ; or it may be affixed to any word in the sentence, not unfrequently (in accordance with the rule observed in the parent language), to a word preceding the verb, e.g. مهن , هoبرى كـم 'I will

 last the thought (or desire) of friendship with me'; ; كم شان هـم سر 'I I will sever the heads of all of them from the necks'.

Note. With the exception of the conjunctions, and L , there appears to be no word to which the enclitics may not be joined-not only 'in the vulgar speech', but also in the language of literature ; ${ }^{1}$ although, in classical literature, they are rarely affixed to the prepositions 4,4 . 4 . In combination with the conjunctions $\underset{\sim}{x}$ and *, the enclitics take the forms chiyat. But these combinations are often eontracted by the older



Rem. a. In poetry, the objective pronoun (like the possessive) may be affixed to a word immediately, without a connecting vowel; e.g.

Rem. b. The Persian $a m=$ Phl. $a m=$ O.P. enclitic (dat.) maiy; $a t=$ Phl. at $=$ O.P. taiy; ash = Phl. ash $=$ O.P. shaiy. The plurals شا شان, ,تان , are formed from the singulars by the addition of the plural suffix $\bar{a} n$.

## B. The Reflexive Pronouns (ضهائر

§60. a. The reflexive pronouns are, 1) خود $\underset{\mathrm{k} h}{\mathrm{~g} u d \text {, or in poetry (at the }}$ end of a hemistich) khad 'self'; 2) خوريش khīsh (archaic khēsh) 'own;

[^6]one's own'; 3) خويششّ Khhīshtan (archaic khē̄shtan) 'one's own body, person, or self; self'.

Rem. $\quad \dot{y}=$ Phl. khe vat $=$ Z. hvato (cf. S. sta-tas) : خويش $=$ Phl.


1) خود 'self; oneself, himself', \&c.; 'own; his own', \&c.- Khud is applicable to both animate and inanimate objects. It has no plural. In the singular it is declined like the personal pronouns. Like the Latin ipse, it may be added for emphasis to any of the personal pronouns, and may either precede with the $i z a \bar{a}$ fat or follow the pronoun without it. At the same time it may have the corresponding enclitic affixed to itself; e.g.



 and so on.
b. Khud an Intensive. Similarly, it is used to strengthen a substantive, either preceding it with $i \approx \bar{a} \bar{f} f a t$ or following it without
 peculiar nature of the person; the very personification' (of); or the
 وَفا خرد 'fidelity itself'; آن خود 'it itself'. It may even be used to intensify itself; as خود بخنود 'quite of himself (or itself); freely, voluntarily, spontaneously', \&c.; or it may be strengthened by one of its Arabic synonyms, غ́, غين, خات , غé, \&c.; as خود بنغس 'he himself'; بخنغ English 'very' denoting identity; as that was the very property that had been lost'.
c. It is also often used alone, the pronoun required being easily determined from the context, or from the termination of the verb in the sentence.
d. Khud as a Possessive. In the construct state, as un possessive, خود (or, optionally, خويش) must always be substituted for the genitive of the personal pronouns, when these refer to the subject (inchoative or agent) of the verb; e.g. بتسكين خاطرِ خودرا يِى كفـت 'for the consolation of his (own) heart, he was saying'; but برد ختسكين خاطرِ اورا 'for the consolation of his (i.e. another person's) heart'.

Rem. e. Khud is commonly employed in compounds; as خود 'beside oneself (or himself, \&c.), elated, distracted, \&c.'; خودرای 'self-
opinioned'; خودرسنا 'vain, conceited'; and many more which will be found in the lexicons.
2) Khīsh 11 a Possessive. خوُ 'own; one's own, his own, \&cc.'Khish is applied to persons only. Owing to its adjectival character, it cannot, like $\underset{\text { خ }}{3}$ and $\underset{\text {, }}{\text {, be used to emphasize a pronoun or }}$ substantive; but it is very commonly employed as a possessive, in the construct state, under precisely the same conditions as $د$;
 successor by covenant'. و ولى ولى (i.e. another person's) successor' ; بنتفسِ خوشِ 'in propriá persona'.

Note. In ordinary prose خور خُش خرَ may be employed as muzāf ilaih at the option of the writer. But in rhyming prose, or in poetry, the choice of the one or the other is usually determined by the rhyme.
f. Khīsh En Subst. fying 'one's own (his own, \&c.); a kinsman'; and it may then form
 nearly the same sense; e.g. فُلاز ' j . so-and-so is one of ourselves'; i.e. he is not a stranger or an alien.
3) خ'وشتصتن 'self; oneself, himself, \&c.'-Khīshtan is only applied to persons, or to things personified. Like $د, \boldsymbol{y}$, it has no plural form; but it is declined in the singular. It may also be used to emphasize a pronoun, but cannot have an enclitic annexed to it; e.g.

Like $\quad \rightarrow$, too, khishtan may be used in any of the cases; e.g.
(Nom.) خويشتن سيم , غلّّ اندوزند " They themselves accumulate money and grain'.

(Acc.) خويشتن را ? ${ }^{\text {( }}$ (Thou regardest thyself as a great man'.
 that the moth should kill itself'?
 'I am not so engrossed with thee, that the thought of self (ever) enters my mind '.

## C. The Demonstrative Pronouns (íآسها)

§61. The demonstrative pronouns are of two kinds: $a$ ) the detached or independent ; $b$ ) the annexed demonstrative.
a) The Independent Demonstratives
§62. a. The independent, or detached demonstratives are-

1) إير ' this here, this', -for near objects (از براى قريب).

Rem. اين is derived from the Pāz. $\bar{\imath} n$, which is probably from a primitive aina; cf. S. èna: $\mathcal{u} \top=\mathrm{P} \overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{z}$. and Phl. $\bar{a} n$; O.P. anya 'other'; cf. S. anya, and Hindī ān. Some scholars, however, refer $\bar{a} n$ to the Z. $a n-a ;$ S. $a n$, or $a n-a$.
b. $\cup^{\top}$ is also used as a personal pronoun, in referring to inanimate objects, and corresponds to the English 'it' (v. §58b).
c. Like our demonstratives 'this' and 'that', ائ and 0 Tare sometimes local adjectives, and sometimes logical pronouns; i.e. they represent something that has been spoken of without indicating its locality. As adjectives, they precede the substantive, and are indeclinable; but they may define a singular or a plural noun in any

 (acc.) 'those houses'; and so on. By omitting the 'object pointed out' (مُشار) " declinable ; as-

## Singular

Nom. اين 'this'.
Acc. ايثرا $\bar{i} n-r \bar{a}$.




## Plural

Nom. الينان 'these' (persons); 'these' (things).
Acc. اينانرا $\bar{i} n \bar{x} n-r \bar{\alpha}$;


Loc. در درينان or \& \&c.
For the forms در ايی, از اين, and the like, we now generally meet with ازريّ, ازين, \&c. Similarly is declined آن أر, except that the
ablative and locative forms بر آن ',در آن , , \&ce., are as commonly used as بران , بران, \& \& c.

Note. In poetry the hamza of آن is dropped after the conjunctions, va and $S_{\text {S }} k i$; e.g. وَّ for

d. The Ancient Demonstr. Im. Besides these demonstrative pronouns we also meet with the relic of another demonstrative, $\quad$ ! in ( $=$ O.P. ima; S. ima), which invariably replaces the demonstrative اين before the words روز 'day', شب 'night', and occasionally, before the words ${ }^{\prime}$ ' 'time', and $\quad$ 'morning' (but this is not considered chaste); and is always inseparably attached to
 المسال 'this year'; إنار imbār 'this time' (more commonly of which is, perhaps, a contraction); (this morning' (more correctly آين صبع).
e. The Demonstr, $A n=$ Possessive. The demonstrative it commonly employed as the governing word (مُضاف) in the construct. state to form a possessive locution; as © 'T 'mine' (lit. 'that which (is) of me'); آنِ تو 'thine'; آ 'his', \&c. And the preposition ;
 however, in the sense of 'of the king's horses'; but, 'out of the
 a Brahman'. See § 27. Possessive Genitive.

Rem. In the spoken language of the present time, the construction with $\begin{aligned} & \text { آ آ } ا \text { is or not often used. The genitive } j \text { of itself suffices to }\end{aligned}$ express possession; as as اين خانز از بدر است this house belongs to (lit. 'is of ') the father' (see § 27. Possessive Genitive); or the word 0 or employed; as مالل يدر 'the father's' ('the property of the father').
f. The Demonstr. used to express Sort or Kind. The demonstratives, preceded by the partitive $j$, are sometimes used elliptically for
 'a devotee-bewitching beauty of this (or, of such a) kind' (Sa'dī);
من از آن مرد نيستم ك\$ بسخنانِ شها فريغته و مغرور شوم
'I am not the kind of man to be taken in and deluded by your words' (Mīrkhond).
g. The demonstratives are very commonly strengthened by prefixing
 word; this word'; همان روز 'that same (or, very) day'. In the locative
 (or, after) this same'. . is also used to express the simultaneous occurrence of two events ; e.g.
از وى دهان كثمادن همان بود و ازرو باه رو در كريز نهادن همان
'No sooner did he open his mouth than the fox took to flight'.
h. The Demonstrative $\bar{I} n a k$, \&cc. A similar strengthening is effected by adding to the demonstratives, 1) the suffix © $a k$; as ايذـك 'lo ! here' (is), or 'here' (is); ©..5 ' 'behold, there' (is); e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { هرك آيدش از شش سو كويد كه منم اينـك }
\end{aligned}
$$

'Since he believes not in Death he says, "Where, where is Death ?" Death comes to him from all six sides and says, "Here am I!""

- Behold, the doors of the Georgians are open (to you); Lo! the sacred precincts of the Byzantines are ready (to admit you)': Khāqānī.

2) The forms $\bar{I} n t$ and $\bar{A} x t$. The affixed personal pronoun $-(a t)$; as ايْنْ int (for inn-at) 'this (is) for thee '; 'behold, here is'; © 'that (is) for thee'; 'behold, there is' (but both are also used as synonymous with زْرِّ ‘bravo! how excellent'! \&c.); e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { سعدى آكر جانِ و مال صرن شود درِ وِّىال }
\end{aligned}
$$

' Sådī, if (thy) life and wealth be spent in (obtaining) union, This (or the latter) is an exalted station for thee; and That (or the former) an insignificant price'.

And Khāqānī says:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آنْت على رايتـى قاتلِ هر خارِّى } \\
& \text { ايْنْت قُباد آيتى قامع ـهر هـر هزدكى }
\end{aligned}
$$

' There thou hast one possessed of the standard of 'Alī (and, like 'Alī), the slayer of every Khāriji : Here thou hast one possessing the power of Qubād (and, like him) the extirpator of every follower of Mazdak (the heresiarch)'. Similarly (though less commonly) we meet with ( ${ }^{\text {in }} n s h$ (for $\bar{i} n$-ash) 'this (is) for him ', \&c.
i. The Demonstratives Chunin, \&cc. By prefixing to آن and
 $\because$ ' $\quad$ 'like this, such, such a one'; and 'like that, such'; adverbially, 'in such a manner, so'. And these may be strengthened by prefixing ائر to the former, and the latter; as آن to such

performance of such a duty'; آ چپنان and we obtain the adj. and adv. هos 'even like this, just such as this'; 'precisely such or so, in the very same manner', \&c.; © 'even like that, just such as that', \&c. While by affixing the relatives合 to we obtain the forms , sime way', 'in such a way that'.

Rem. As last members, ايْ and appear in the compounds آندين and $\underset{\mathrm{H}}{\mathrm{G}}$ 'so much, so many', \&c. (the Lat. tantus, tot), which are noticed under the indefinite pronouns. As first members they help to form many pronominal adverbs; as آيْبَا 'in this place, here'; آنبا 'there', \&c.

## b) The Affixed Demonstrative

$\S 63$. The affixed demonstrative pronoun is $\leqslant-\bar{\imath}$ (archaic $\bar{e}$ ), called
 (the noun) determinate' or ياى يفِت 'the descriptive $y \bar{a}$ '. It is annexed to a noun in the singular or plural, and is almost invariably followed by the conjunctive particle $\delta$ of a relative clause ( $v . \S 64$ ); e.g.

 Numerous examples of its use will be found under the relative pronoun.

Rem. The demonstrative $\bar{\iota}(\bar{e})$ is derived from the Phl. $\bar{e}=$ the O.P. demonstrative pronoun aita. It is the same pronoun which forms the base of the personal pronoun īshān (èshan, 3 pers. plur. of و ا), and which is found in the locution $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{j}$ (i.e. $\alpha z \bar{z} \bar{e}-\bar{r} \bar{a}$ ) 'because of that'; and also in the indefinite pronoun هي (aich (archaic ēeh, or hēch) 'anything'.

## D. The Relative Pronouns (أُسهاى مَوصؤه)

§64. a. The relative pronouns are $\leqslant k i(=$ O.P. $k a)$ and $x<c k i$ ( $=$ the O.P. enclitic chiy). The former is applicable to both animate and inanimate objects ; and is always to be used where the antecedent is a noun or noun equivalent definitely expressed, whereas $x \rightarrow$ can only be used when the antecedent is either 0 , or in the sense of
隹 'that speech which thou didst utter'.
 of (i.e. which introduces) the conjunctive, or relative clause'-generally comes immediately after the antecedeut; but it is sometimes separated
from it by one or more words. The antecedent, the conjunctive particle, and the or relative clause, together, are regarded grammatically as one inseparable whole, and hold the position of a single word in the sentence.

## The Antecedent (إسم-مُوصوُل or orقّم)

b. The antecedent of $S_{\text {may be-1 }}$ ) A personal pronoun (v. Rem. c); as as 'I who' (lit. 'I, that'); ; كو 'thou who', \&c. 2) A demonstrative pronoun, used substantively or pronominally in the sing. or
 or or
3) A common noun in the sing. or plur., but always determined by




4) A proper noun (v. Rem. c) ; as a
5) The indefinite pronoun هرآن, or its substitute as as هر ; or هركه 'every one who, every such person as, he who, whoever'.
6) A common noun in the sing., with or or prefixed; e.g. every word which'; هر ${ }^{\text {ه }}$ 'every thing that'.
c. The Antecedents of Chi. The antecedent of $x$ is always one of the pronouns هـرآن, or, or ; e.g. 'آن 'that which' (= O.P.

d. Compound Relatives. The compound relative pronouns are
 which the interrogative pronoun هر هر أكنه or هرج ه
 occur in old writers, in both prose and verse. So, also, هر (for $\alpha>0$ ) is occasionally met with in poetry.

Note 1. The Old Relative Kujā. By the older poets las 'where'?
 هرآنكس كجا يافتى 'every one whom he used to find'.
 the only ones to which native grammarians apply the term اسهاى موصول, or, briefly, موصول. When the antecedent is a personal pronoun,


نبَّبَّ 'the described or explained noun', of which the following clause, introduced by the conjunctive particle, is the en 'qualificative', or is called (not the kāfe silas, but) كافِ بيان the explicatory ${ }_{\Sigma} S^{\prime}$ '; e.g. in تو Sc نامت رُستم است 'thou who hast the name of Rustam', and 'Alexander, who held sway over a world',
 $\$$, the 5 ; 5 ; and the following clause -ki to ass in the one case, and ki to dāsht in the other-the or oneren but not the

## The Relative Clause

§65. The relative clause, whether conjunctive or qualificative, always contains a pronoun (called the راجع 'the reverter, or referrer', ie. to the antecedent, termed its $\left.ع()^{\circ}\right)$ which refers to the antecedent-although altogether independent of it in respect of caseand, together with the conjunctive (or explicatory) particle, supplies the syntactical place of our relative pronoun. This pronoun (the عاُئد) may be optionally expressed when it is in the nominative case (even when it is implied in the verb of the or as its or subject); but it is generally omitted when its omission is not detrimental to the perspicuity of the sentence. Its insertion, however, is necessary when it is in the genitive, the dat.-acc. with 1 , (referring to persons), or any of the oblique cases. In the dat.-acc. the forms $15,1,1 \mathrm{i} T$, 1,0 Of, \&cc., are very commonly used, by ellipsis, for $1, g$, \&c. The following examples will explain the use of this pronoun:

Nominative. $\quad$ هر كا او از همزبانى شد جُدا
'Whoever has become separated from 1 friend': $=$ ('every one that he').
ابقلى كو رِِز روشن شهع كانورى ذِهد
'The fool who lights (lit. sets up) © camphor candle in bright day': (here " who' $=5=$ و $\ddagger$ ' 'that he').
Tانك در آدم دميده روحرا
'He who into Adam breathed the breath of life': ('who'= $=$ but the pron., is implied in the verb).
'Sweeter than everything that passes away is the speech of a friend': (here آن 'it', is understood before 3 ).

Exemplification of the Use of the Raja"
Note. The pronoun is generally omitted when it is the inchoative ('مْبْ), or subject of a nominal sentence; as
آنكا سِتمگارست گنهارست
'He who is an oppressor is a sinner': (where the pron., is understood before ستمار).
 'I, before whom (in whose eyes) dust and silver are on a par': ('before whom' = Sc در ديشي من 'that before me').
تو كا ناهت رُستم است كارِرُستم نتوانى كرد
'Thou, whose name is Rustam, canst not do the deeds of Rustam': (' whose' = 1 ... इ ' 'that of thee').
'The foreigner whose head is full of sedition': ('whose head' $=$ ( ... . .
آن كار مكُن Sc ابْام آن زشت است
'Do not that work the end of which is bad': ('the end of which' =


Dative, الى Sc شخص منت حقير نودو
' O thou to whom my person appeared contemptible': ( $-=1$, ' to thee ').
Dative with au. آن زر هر آنسسرا Sc بوَى دادنى است خواهم داد

- I will give that money to whomsoever it ought to be given (lit. to whichsoever person that to him)'.

'Art thou not he whom my father redeemed'? ('whom' $=1, \ldots .5$ ' that . . . thee').
هر ج آن زِ عُهمٍ خود بتوانى بشب بِزد
' Whatever thou canst steal from thy life, do steal it in the night': (here the pron. آن is expressed).
وَان كِرا پادشاه جبيندازد
'And he whom the king casts down': ('whom' $=1,5=1, g$ ' 5 'that him').
هركار راست روش شغل فرموده بود همهرا معزول كرد
'Whomsoever Rāst Ravish had employed he dismissed, every one'.
Ablative. هركه ازو هُرورى نيايد سْرورىرا نشايد
' He from whom (lit. that from him) skilfulness cometh not (i.e. who does not possess skill) is not fit for command'.

Locative. نه مردست آن ک در وَى مردمى نيست
' No man is he in whom (lit. that in him) humanity exists not'.
بس جان بلب آهد كه برو كس نگربست

- Many a life has passed away (lit. came to the lips) over which (lit. that over $i t$ ) no one wept'.

Note, that when the pronoun (the ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ (c) is in the dat. or acc. it is frequently not expressed in the relative clause ; but its sign 1 , is attached to the antecedent, even though this may be the nominative of the sentence; egg.
آنرا كم فلك بهسنب عشق نشانْد
'He whom Heaven (has) seated on the throne of love' ( 5 (آن ك\$ اورا
كا يزدان كسى, Sc دارد نِگًا، ز گرما و سرما نگردد تباها
'Since the person whom God watches over is not harmed by heat and cold' (كسى ك ك , as it would be expressed in prose). A similar construction is allowable when the suppressed pronoun is in the genitive or datival form of the genitive case; eeg. مراد هركه بر آر解 'whose ever desire thou accomplishest will become
 canst thou, whose hand trembleth, perforate a pearl'? where ‘ thou that thy hand ’.

## E. The Interrogative Pronouns (اسهای إسْتِْهْهام)

§66. The interrogative pronouns are-

1. $x$, or (old) S. 'who'? $\quad$ 2. or (old) 'what'?
2. ${ }^{\text {. }}$ 's. $=$ Phi. katām) 'which'? (of two or more) ; 'what'?
3.     - $_{\text {' 'how much'? 'how many'? ( }=\text { PhI. chant }=\text { Z. chvant ; }}$ cf. Lat. quant-us).

1, a. The Interrogative $K i$. $\checkmark$ is restricted in its application to animate objects and is applicable to both numbers; but the plural

' No one knew, in thy court, O king! who we really were (lit. are), and what things came (lit. come) upon us'.

It is declined like a substantive, and may be used in any case; as
 (lit. from) whom didst thou inquire'? ازز 'البا, SN 'by whose tongue'?

In the dat.-acc. the postposition 1 , is inseparably attached to $\delta$, and the silent $\gamma$ being then no longer required is dropped ; as كِر ديدى ' whom didst thou see'?
b. When the interrogative is inseparably connected with a following word or suffix of which the initial letter is 1 (as the subst. verb است, or the verbal terminations ${ }^{\top}, ى_{l}, \& c$., or the plur. suffix $(-)$, the form ${ }_{8}$ gives place to ك the 1 is elided, and its short vowel-except in the case of است, when the vowel of I disappears along with it-is transferred to the $\mathcal{v}$ of 'who am I'? 'مـ كِيْم they'? كـكَّ 'what persons? who'?

Note. In the older writings, $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{N}}$ is not restricted to the cases noticed above, but is often used independently instead of $\delta$; as it is
 is coming'? This remark also applies to ${ }_{\Omega}$, in the old language.

2, a. The Interrogative Chi. $x \frac{x}{z}$ is used both substantively and

 As a substantive, its application is restricted to inanimate objects. It is applied to the plural as well as the singular. The plural 8 ? chiha $\bar{a}\left(L_{\infty}+\infty\right)$ is, it is true, often met with; but usually in the exclamatory sense of 'what things'! as an 'how shall I tell what things (or, ills) Time's evil eye has done'! (see also 1, a. couplet). $x$ itself is frequently used as an exclamation, expressive of admiration, or astonishment, or indignation; e.g. *
 is this'!
b. As a substantive, $x$ is declined precisely as $\delta$ is; e.g. in modern colloquial. Nom. $\%$ ? 'what is the meaning of this? why'?
 10 or sense of 'for what? why'? (a meaning which, by ellipsis, ox itself sometimes has; as نشی 'why sittest thou still'?). If it is intended that $x_{\square}$, followed by 1 , should have the sense of the dat. or acc. 'to what? or what'? the l , is written separately:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ค泣 } 1,0 \text {, }
\end{aligned}
$$

'I said to him "Give (it)": he hit me a blow on the mouth with lis fist. He paid no heed to what I said, or why I said it'.

This, however, is not a common form ; the more common expression in this sense is $1, j \geqslant \approx$; or, if the interrogative is in the accusative case, $\rightarrow$ alone (the nom. form of the acc.) ; as ('what didst thou see'?) 'what is the matter'?
c. The dative $x \frac{0}{x}$. sometimes has the meaning of $\int_{\nabla}$ 'wherefore'?; but it may also signify 'to what' ? ; e.g. بـد 'to what is it like'? The ablative $\quad$ lay have the meaning of 'from what cause'? 'for what reason? why'? but it often occurs in the sense of 'of what thing or matter? about what'? ' of what material'?
d. If $\delta>$ is connected in writing with a following word, its $\gamma$ will
 'in what manner? how'? (for $\quad$ t $x_{3}$ ) 'like what'? And if the following word has $\mid$ for its initial letter, the form replaces $\approx \underset{v}{\sim}$, just as 5 under the same circumstances has been shown to replace §; e.g. آن ' what is that'?

Rem. As an interjection $x \rightarrow$ often occurs to express admiration in
 It is also used as a conjunction, in the sense of 'for, because'; e.g.號 'for, they may, perchance, be dead'. The
 of 'for the reason that, because'.
3. The Interrogative Kudām. ${ }^{1 د 3}$ is applied to both animate and inanimate objects, and is used both substantively and adjectively, and in any case ; e.g. كوى إ كدام است "which is his street'? آن كدام جـكدام عِبارت إشارت ?'which (or, what) journey is that' سغر است號 'to which expression dost thou allude'? - Which particular
 adjective, كدامين, or its contraction كدام, may be used for كدام; as 'in what town usedst thou to dwell'? When which? كدام is repeated, as in the sentence, Which is his house and which is yours? the second is placed last in the sentence,

 فر 'he said in which book this expression is found '.

4, a. The Interrogative Chand. $\mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{\nabla}}$, like kudām, is applicable to both animate and inanimate objects, and is used with or without a following substantive. If the substantive is expressed, it must be in the singular; e.g. تچد اسب دارى "how many horses hast thou'? ترا مشاهرو هند است 'Kow much (or, what) monthly wages hast thou'?
(in modern colloquial, (حָּن ميفروثى) 'for how much art thou selling (or, wilt thou sell) it'?
b. حی , like (how much (or how often) I have repented of that day'? It is also often used in poetry preceded by $l^{\circ}$ in the sense of 'how long'; e.g. اير حكم, 'this authority and pride and wrath for how long'?

## F. Indefinite Pronouns and Nouns (تمهofor

§67. Under the indefinite pronouns may conveniently be classed certain indefinite nouns which have more or less of a pronominal character, as well as those nouns, expressive of some indeterminate number or quantity, which native grammarians class under the head of كِكايان 'words of which the precise significance is concealed'; and مغاس غيرِمِ مُعيّن and nouns are as follows:-
1), a. Kas. $\quad$ ( $=$ Phl. kas $=$ O.P. kaśchiy), 'person, one, any one, some one, somebody'; and ${ }^{\text {' a person, any person, any one, }}$ some one', \&c.; with a following negative, 'no one, nobody'; plur. كس در سرای نيست .persons, people'. It is declinable; e.g. كسان 'there is no one in the house'; درونِ كس مخراش 'do not wound (lit. scratch) the heart of any one'.
زِ مهرُ كسان روى بر تافتم كس خويشتن خوبشتن يافتم
'I (have) turned away my face from the love of people: I have found myself the person for (the best friend to) myself' (Nizāmī).

 'one of his people was present'.
b. $س$ is also used in the sense of ' $a$ somebody, a person (or object) of worth or consequence'; to which is opposed نسأك ' $a$ nobody', \&c.; e.g. ناكس بتربيّت نشود كس' a worthless person will not, by education, become a person of worth' (Sa'dī). آنكس كآ广 'he who all at once became a thing of importance, did not attain to anything' (Sa'dī). كس 'noble and plebeian, high and low, everybody'.
2) Shakhṣ. Ar. شخص. 'person, individual, some one'; شخص'a person, some one, somebody'. The Ar. (broken) plural is اشخاص. It is

'that same person passed by him'; ششصى نزد او آوردند 'they brought a person to him'.
3) Mardum. مردْم 'people' (= Phi. martum): plur. مردمان;



Note. The indefinite subject مردم is frequently not expressed, but implied in the plural verb; as
تِدهد مردِ هوشهند جواب آنگx كزو سوال كن:د
'The wise man does not give an answer till people put a question to him' (or, till he is questioned: Sa 'dis) ; آورد اند 'they (or people) have said; it is said'.

 , 'he gave him something and said nothing'.
5), a. Hitch (Hēch). ایه, (any'; 'anything'; with a following negative, 'nothing, none'. It is used both adjectively and substantively. As an adjective it is applicable to both animate and inanimate objects, and always precedes the substantive; as oo
 a following negative, 'nothing'; e.g.
 'Give not thy heart to any companion, nor to any land; for the world (lit. land and sea) is wide, and men are many'; در دلش از هـ نوع غم نيامدى 'grief of any kind never came to his heart'.

It may also be followed by a numeral, used as a substantive; as هییییی , or or 'any one', with a following negative, 'not any one, no one, none'. The substantive may also have the ياي تنـكير
 'it has no fault' (or, 'no defect whatever'); در هِ 'in any epoch whatever'.
b. The following are examples of the use of as substantive : ( and the cypress has not any (or, has none) of these'. او صبر ندارد ك\$ بسازد بهـئ" he has not the patience to make shift with anything'.
.
c. © is also frequently used absolutely in the sense of (1) 'nothing, naught'; (2) 'a thing of no worth or account'; and (3) 'at all';

 all of no account, since they are fleeting' (Sa'dī). مكن نماز بر آن . هo do not pray for that worthless fellow who has done nothing' (Sa'dī).

In this sense also occurs in composition with a negative imperative to form compound nouns, as: هي : An ignoramus;

d. Hichkudām. The pronoun $\mathrm{p}^{\text {د̌ }}$ ' is used relatively in combina-

 'he has not that affection (lit. inclination of the heart) fur any one soever that (he has) for Ayāz' (Sa dī).

Rem. Hīch, or $\bar{\imath} c h($ archaic $h \bar{e} c h$ or $\bar{e} c h)=$ Phl. hēch or éch = O.P. aiva + chiy; cf. § 36, Rem.
6) Har. هر 'every, each'; sometimes 'all' (= Phl. har = O.P. harwa; cf. Z. haurva; S. sarva). Har is used as a distributive pronominal adjective and always precedes the substantive, which may have the ياي وحدت affixed to it in order to strengthen or emphasize
 .بهر نعهتى شُكرى واجب ; 'everybody praised him' 'هر كس برو 'آربرين خوانْد 'for each single blessing (or, favour) a rendering of thanks is incumbent'; ( each single thorn is a tongue for to extol Him'; هر زبانى مكاور8ُ دارد 'every (or, each separate) language has a usage (or, an idiom) peculiar to itself'.

Similarly, we have هرجبا '(in) every place, every where'; هر الهر '(at) any time, whenever'; بهرحال 'in every case, in any case'. The distributive may also precede a numeral; e.g. هرريك, or هريكى 'every one, each one'; هرردور 'both'; ' هرصد ' 'all three' 'every one of the hundred'; or كُدُم used relatively, as هركدا 'whichever'.

Rem. For the use of $ه$, and its strengthened form هرآن, as the antecedent of a relative pronoun, and in forming compound relative pronouns, see § 64, b, 5); and 6) d.

## Nouns of Aggregation

7) a.
b.
c.
d. تمام متم and

These words are all substantives, meaning 'the totality or aggregate, the whole (of), all (of)'. They are declinable. When any one of
them immediately precedes another substantive, it commonly stands to it as i. $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{h}}$, or, in other words, it governs it in the genitive case in construction with the $i z \bar{a} f a t$. When any one of them follows a substantive it is simply a corroborative (اسم_تاكيد)). The following remarks will explain the use of each of these words:
a. (1) Hama. 'the whole, all'; sometimes 'every' (= Phl. hamak; O.P. hama; S. sama). when it precedes a substantive may be used either with or without $i z a \bar{a} f a t$ with a different shade of meaning. Thus, when it signifies an aggregate without regard to individual component parts is used without the $i \approx a \bar{a} f a t$, as, for example: : the whole way he kept pondering over this matter'; 'it is known to the whole (of the) world'; 'the whole (of the) night my eyes did not close'; ; 5 'if he should do all evil'; (an enemy, when he has exhausted his whole stock of stratagem'.

When, however, it signifies the totality of component parts, and is translated by 'every part of', 'every individual of,' \&c., takes
 of the kingdom under his authority'; 'let them place a seal upon every one of the doors of his house'. So also هـهُ مردم 'each one of the people'; 'every one of them';接 'each one of them ';-and the poet Hätif says:
'Thou hast thy bow drawn, and art lying in wait to shoot me with an arrow; while I am full of sorrow : my every sorrow arises from this, lest-which God forbid-thou shouldst miss '.
(2) may also be used absolutely without any accompanying substantive, and is declinable as a noun; e.g. 'they impaled all of them'; هرد 'I I spent it all on my expenses'.
(3) when it follows a substantive, is itself a subst. used as a corroborative (تاكيد), and can never be an adjective. Examples of its
 Power"';' ${ }^{1}$ 'the arrows of the quiver of argument, all, he shot away'.
' لَّلَّلُ القدر 'ther the night of power', is the 27th of the month Ramazän, the night on which the Qur'än is believed to have been sent down from heaven.

ها 'we all'; 'they all'. Similarly, where we say 'all this', or 'all these', the Persian has ${ }^{2}$ 'this (or these) all '; as اين 'all this is (or, all these are) naught'.
(4) The following are examples of the use of in the sense of 'every', but still with regard to the totality:-
'when the hand fails of every resource'; 'to every body his own judgement appears perfect'; © '(in) every place, everywhere'.
(5) The regular plural of is o but it is not generally used. The following is an example from Sa'dì: الْ (He is) independent of all, and compassionate to all'.

The plural form that usually occurs is irregular plural' of , but, in all probability, a contraction of
 'the king made the sign to put all of them to death';
 and their own deliverance'.
b. Hamagi $\overline{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathrm{E}}$ is the abstract substantive formed from , and means 'the totality, the whole". It is used as a ${ }^{2}$, or a the first, usually (in classical literature) without the $i z a \bar{a} f a t$; as ${ }^{\circ}$


Note. In the language of the present period (both written and spoken), the izāfat is not suppressed; e.g. هن ز ز ' ' of all the women'. Moreover, © is used in the sense of T T all of them came'; ; they are all going'.
c. Kull. 'f 'the whole, all (of)', is used, in classical literature, as $\rightarrow$ is. It will suffice to give a few examples of its use, (1) as (2) as a tākīd or 'corroborative'; (3) as a noun in the dative case :
(1) بتّ 'till it reaches the final stage, in which all (of) the perfections are displayed' ; تغن原 'liken tone which is produced by the whole string'.
(2) ديـن , religion and heart, all, the people surrendered to him (Maulānā Rūmī).
 which to the whole is as the ratio of the side of square to the diagonal'.
 .
d. Tamām. ploت 'the whole (of), all (of)', is declinable in the singular, and is used (a) as ${ }^{\boldsymbol{i} \text {, }}$, with or without suppression of the izäfat (cf. $-\circ$ ), and ( $\beta$ ) as a
a) (1) which comprises all (all of) the phases of equity'.

'To a lofty mind the whole world, with (all) its goods and gear, is not worth a blade of grass' (Käshifī).
B) بل د 'the Christians, all, gave their heart to him' (Maulānā Rūmī).

دد و دام و مُغغ. هوارا تهام
'Wild and rapacious animals, and fowls of the air, all, naught but greediness casts into the snare' (Kāshifī).

Note. In such constructions as the above, $p$ is a substantive. But - $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{o}}$ is also used as an adjective (as in Arabic) and is synonymous with تا 'complete, perfect, entire, whole', \&c. This is evident from the
 it usually follows the substantive, which takes the kasra-i-tausīfī ; e.g.
 (or, complete) harshness' (Sa'dī), إسْاع دروز; 'Ismãīl despatched his brother with all pomp to Samarqand' (Mïrkhond).
 and v :"ما, both signifying ' the totality, the whole'. Examples of their



e. Jumla. (1) $\mathrm{d}^{\circ}+\frac{\mathrm{n}}{}$ ' the whole (of), all', occurs only as a substantive.

 poetry; indeed, in the Masnavī it appears to be the rule. Examples of its use are as follows:- شد شلé 'all was ruined (or lost)';

 ?
 . 'decapitate me also along with all (of them)'.
若 'the things were all brought'. But instances of such usage are not very numerous.
(2) From or is derived the abstract substantive ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ' the totality, the whole, the mass'. Like جor , in classical literature, dispenses with the $i \bar{z} \bar{f} f a t$ when it is used as U解; e.g. :بجهلى = 'in toto, in the mass, in a body'.

 بر ج-مـعـعُواى بدنى ; 'النـر 'the whole of the province of Transoxiana' 'over the whole of the bodily powers'. As a corroborative, its occurrence is not common, except as an adverb Lonor ' wholly, en bloc'.
g. Majmū'. مجهع ' 'the whole', \&c. | These occur as as to a
 have the izâafat expressed, e.g. بجهrوe. 'to all (or, the whole of) the powers'; ; ساتير|راملكش بسوخت, 'and it burnt all the rest of his goods'; It forms a plural سطاكُربّ which is used in the sense of 'the others '

Note. The nouns *ow and also accasionally used in the sense of 'the whole (of)'; e.g. بكاتُّ بلاد بلا 'to all the provinces';.
8) Yakī (Yakē). Indefinite noun or numeral adjective (one, some one, a certain one'; with a following negative, 'not one, no one, none.. It is used both adjectively and substantively, and in all the cases; e.g. يكى مردٍ بيغانx ديد 'he saw a (or some) strange man'; إز اينان يكى ; one day a leopard will rend him' يكى روز پانْكش بدرد يكىرا دوستى بود 'not one of these holds up his head' سر بر ذـــيدارد ' بدر ' $a$ certain one had friend'.
9), a. (1) Digar. Pronominal adjective ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ (in poetry, and in
 'آن ديكرى 'that other, the other'; 'that other one, the other'. The plural is ديكَران may either precede or follow the substantive. If it follows an indefinite substantive in the singular, this will have the ياي تيا annexed to it, in accordance with rule ; e.g. وزيرِ ديَّر = وزيرى ديخر = the other viziir other 1 Su is = contraction of the ancient dadžgar $=$ Phl. datīgar $=$ O.P. duvitiya-
kara: ef. S. dvitīya + karam.
vizīr ; in order that other slaves

准 ${ }^{\text {C/ }}$ the other ministers said to him in private'.

Note. ديخر may also be used in the sense of $a$ ) 'the next', and b)

 'I have nothing more to say'.

源 'no one can serve two masters, or else he will hold to the one and despise the other'; (يكى بر جاست آن ديكرى برياست so long as the one is quiet, the other is astir'.

Note. ديگر is frequently used adverbially, in the sense of 'a second time, again'; 'any more'; 'moreover, besides', \&c.; e.g.
كوترى كَ ذِدِر آشيان نْوْاهد ديد قضا همى بردش تا بِسوى دانه و دام
'The pigeon which will not see its nest again, Fate bears onward towards the grain and the snare'.
(and, moreover, my heart felt more inclined to save this one'.
ديگر is also used in the sense of 'secondly' and wo ديظر in the sense of 'thirdly'.
(3) Reciprocal Pronouns. The reciprocal pronouns (ضمائِر مُشترك)
 other'; ديكريك, 'each other', or 'one another'; eeg. در عادت آنان بـ (in their habits they resembled each other
 becomes the instrument for ascertaining the relative value of things

 adieu to one another'.
9), ß. Gair. غَيْ (Ar. غَغْ $)$ ), 'other, another '; 'another': (Ar. broken plur. آَغيار). غير is always a substantive ; and when it stands as ${ }^{\circ}$ to a following subst. or pron., the izāafat is expressed. Examples of its use are-
this is a wrong to oneself or to
 wealth or rank or other object of quest'; ' $ز$ ' and other than he';
تو بتاريكى علىرا دِيدُ
'Thou hast seen 'Alī in the dark, and therefore hast preferred another to him '.

Note.
 followed by از 'of'; e.g. فير ازريد ' ' with the exception of Zaid all were present there'; '
It also frequently occurs as a negative prefix to adjectives; as
 غيريُعْعِّنِّ 'undetermined, indefinite'. In such usage it is commonly followed by the izäfat.
 and such' (a person, or thing); 'such a one, so and so'; فلانى 'such a one, so and so'; فلانكس 'such and such a person, such a one', \&cc.
 فلان عابد 'what sayest thou with respect to such and such a devotee'? what did he say to thee on such and such a matter'?
As a substantive it is applicable to persons only, and is declinable ;

 كرده است 'such a one has hid himself'.
' My heart that very day discovered you to be a mortal enemy, when it found that you were the beloved of such a person and such a person' (Väqif).
(2) آلا or or or as be preceded by one of the demonstratives no 'no thought (has he) of this persen or that person'.
Note. The Persian synonyms of فلان are (the not very common)

 used to denote contempt; as in the following couplet from تمّer :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (5) }
\end{aligned}
$$

'At one time he harbours jealousy of and enmity to such a person; at another he has a bootless dispute and quarrel with such a fellow'.
11), a. Baiz. بعغض (lit. 'a port, a portion'), and some one, a certain one, one', are always substantives, and are applicable to both numbers. When they stand m muza $\bar{f} f$, the governed noun is generally a plural or a collective. With ere there is usually .
 (as to what occurs in a certuin work ('one of the works') on
 بعضى 'some (or certain) of the nobles of the realm'; ' ${ }^{2}$ 'in some history' (or, some one of the chronicles); از 'by the combination of one with another'.
11), b. Barkhī ; (Barkhē). برخ் 'a part, a few, some' (from بْ 'i 'part, portion'), is the Persian synonym of the Ar. بعض. When it stands as oنصافن to a following noun in the genitive, the izāfat is sometimes suppressed (or to speak more accurately, it is absorbed in 'the indefinite $v$ ', as in the case of $ى$ ) ; but it is more commonly expressed by the genitive $j$ ' of'. The following examples will suffice to show how it is used:-
.ععفى بx اسوFا حال بفنـا رسيدنـد و برخى آزاد مـطلق كشتـنـد
'Some perished most miserably, and some (or, $\curvearrowleft$ few) obtained absolute liberty'; برخى سردا,انشان كا بزا بزجير شدند 'some of their commanders
 some (or, a little) of it'.
12), a (1). Chand. Liچ 'some, several, sundry, few', is used as an indefinite numeral adjective, and may precede or follow is substantive. But, if it follow, the substantive must have the يnnexed to it; and, in either case, the subst. must be in the singular; e.g.


 , 'I wrote these few verses and made peace'.



 commonly occurs with the meaning of 'some time, for some time, awhile'; as ... .
 " ${ }^{\text {• the man said "I will wait sometime longer"". }}$
(3) Chandin; Chandān. By affixing to $\mathrm{L}-\mathrm{a}$ the demonstratives
 while), so much, so many, so little, so few'; and many, so little'. These may be used with or without a substantive ; but if the substantive is expressed, they invariably precede it, and the subst. must be in the singular, or must be a collective (an Ar. broken plural); e.g. تو:-ديس دروغ 'what is the calamity which is the cause of so much dread'? در "in so
 'but I had not so much affection for it'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ند هِندان كها از ضعف جانت برآيد }
\end{aligned}
$$

' Do not eat so much as to become sick; nor so little that through weakness your life may depart'.

Note. From דیندان, by affixing to it the , is formed the substantive . . . \$ 'and so many were killed in
 to such a deal of this raving did he give utterance, that...?

Rem. By the addition of the particle $\sqrt{ }$ to or or or or
 much, as long as, as soon as, the more', \&c.; e.g. تندانكه مدارا بيش隹 'the more kindness you show him the more
 د


12), $\beta$. And. Adjective د; ' 'a little (more, or over)', 'an odd', is originally connected with $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{i}}$. It is used only after numerals, or numeral adverbs; as دو هزار و اند روبيه بر ذمّسُهُ وَى باقيست two thousand and odd rupees are still owing by him' (see $\S 54$ ).

Rem. Vullers refers and to an ancient form ant, meaning 'part'.
12), $\gamma$. Andak. Adjective ©dil 'little, small, few'; (اندا 'a little, a few'. Andale is the diminutive of $\lambda i l$. As an adjective, it may either follow or precede the noun it qualifies. The following are examples of its use: تا اندك ماي8ر قوّت يافت 'till he gained n small

 serve as an indication of a great deal'; الند 'a little of beauty is better than an abundance of wealth'; قنـاعت كن 'be contented with a little'.
 'little, few'; قليلى 'a little, a few'; e.g. 'آب قليل است 'the water is little'; قليـلم ازجاهلار نيـك باشـ، 'few of the ignorant are good';
 قـرى (c) 'a little' (fr. Ar. قدر 'quantity', \&c.); e.g. قدرى آب بدر ' a little water'; (d) (d) 'a little, a small part (of), something' (fr.
 heard something of his vices'; -(e) 'little, few'; e.g. خوردن S 'to eat little'; تا 'that thou mayst not say that the captives of thy noose (i.e. thy ringlet) are few';

 'most of them (i.e. the people of the world) are astray, and but few are on the right path'.
13), a. Bas; Basī (Basē). (orig. 'enough'), 'many, many a', س. 'a great deal, much, many, many a' (= Phl. vas; = O.P. vasiy, locative of vas), 'according to one's desire'. Examples of their use
 man have they buried beneath the earth'; بسى 'I I expressed much thankfulness' (or, many thanks); جون بسى إبليس آدم روى هست ( 'since there exists many a devil in human form'; $\mu^{\prime}$ © بـديـدار ا, 'people go many a parasang to visit it' (the Ka'ba).

Rem. بسى is also very commonly used as an adverb, in the senses
 . . \$' no long time passed before . . .'
b. Basā. بس 'how many !, many, many ■' (for the final | v. §45).

It is used, like بس, with a following noun ; e.g. . بسا نام زيكوى ينجاك سال 'many a good name of fifty years'.
c. Bisyär, Bisyārī. ,بسيار., (= Phl. vasyär), 'much, many, many $a$ ', 'a great deal (of), much'. Examples are,(it (the world) has cherished and slain many a one like thee'; 'اندكى دليلِ بسيارى بود 'a little will afford indication of much (or, a great deal)'.

## G. The Verb (فِعْل)

§68. The Persian verb has-

(b) Three moods; the indicative, the subjunctive (and optative), and the imperative (and precative).
(c) Eight tenses (of the indicative mood).

Indefinite Time (Fut, or Present)
He will dig
He digs
Future Time (proximate) بكند bikanad.
Present Time
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { He digs } \\ \text { He is digging }\end{array}\right\}$ كن $\begin{aligned} & \text { m } \bar{\imath} \text {-kanad. }\end{aligned}$
He has dug كنده است kanda ast.
Past Time

He dug $\quad$ Si kand.
He was digging S mī-kand.
He had dug كند S kanda būd.
Future Time (more or less remote) He will dig خواهد كند Khhāhad kand. He will have dug كندا باشد kanda bāshad.

Names of Tense
Gnomic Present (میارع).
Simple Future

Present (حال
Perfect (مافيُ قرِب).
Past (ماضيُ مطلق). ( Imperfect (مافيُ نُاتهام) or Past Continuous (ماضئ استمرارى). Pluperfect (ماضئى بعيد).
(Compound or Periphrastic Future (مُستْتْبْ)
Future Perfect (subjunctive) (ماضيُ 1مْتِتمالى).

Note. The name 'perfect' stands for 'present perfect' (the 'proximate past' of native writers).

The name 'imperfect' stands for 'past imperfect'.
The name 'pluperfect' stands for 'past perfect' (the 'remote past' of native writers).
The name 'gnomic present' stands for the 'aorist' of native writers.
(d) Two numbers, singular (و) l ) and plural (جمع).
(e) Three persons in each number, corresponding to the three persons of the pronouns.
§ 69. To the verb belong also-
(a) Verbal adjectives: six participles (indeclinable when used adjectively).
(b) A verbal noun : the infinitive (declinable in the singular when used as a gerund).
§ 70. There is but one conjugation for all verbs.
§ 71. A verb-form consists of two parts-

1. The stem, i.e. the part from which comes a whole group of forms (e.g. kush- in kush-tan, kush-ta, kush-ad, kush-anda; purs- in purs-ī-dan, purs-ad, \&c.).
2. The ending, i.e. the part which varies in different forms coming from the same stem (e.g. -tan, -ta; -ad, -anda).
§ 72. The infinitive ending is-
(a) $-\tan (=$ Phl. -tan $=$ O.P. -tanaiy, locative of tana); e.g. kush-tan.
(b) -dan, used for -tan when the final letter of the stem is a vowel, or one of the consonants $r$ or $n$ (e.g. d $\bar{a}-d a n$, sita-dan, bu$-d a n$, shudan, dī-dan, purs-ì-dan, kar-dan, kan-dan).
§ 73. Classification of Stems. It is most convenient in considering the formation of the parts of the verb to divide the stems into two primary classes : (1) Verb Stem; (2) Tense Stem.
(1) The Verb Stem is found by removing the ending of the Infini-

(2) The Tense Stem again falls into two divisions:
(a) The Present Stem
(b) The Perfect Stem $\}$ from which the tenses are formed.
3. (a) The Present Stem. ${ }^{1}$ This stem is, in a few verbs, identical with the Perfect Stem; e.g. in the verb ${ }_{\text {. ' }}^{\text {'to conceal', both the }}$ Present and the Perfect Stem have the form تُن $\dot{\text { jem }}$.

The Present Stem, however, has usually a distinct form; e.g. Present Stem كردن S Present Stem

The form assumed by the Present Stem depends upon changes produced by the working of certain laws which the advanced student may study with advantage in the extract from the first edition of Platt's Grammar, §§ 73-89 inclusive, pp. 136-63 of the edition of 1894 , which will be found appended to the present edition (see Appendix I).
${ }^{1}$ This is the "Aorist Stem" of the earlier edition.

In the early stages of study the rules for the formation of the Present Stem, detailed in § 74, will be sufficiently instructive.
2. (b) The Perfect Stem. This stem may be found in all verbs by simply dropping the final letter of the Infinitive as given in the dictionary; e.g.


## §74. Rules for the Formation of the Present Stem

I. Infinitives ending in ${ }^{\sim}$ Jan.
A. Preceded by $\mathfrak{\omega} f$.

To form the Present Stem the infinitive termination is to be dropped (i) without other change; (ii) with the introduction of certain changes.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 'to bore' } \\
& \text { شُشْفتن 'to blossom' } \\
& \text { شكافتن 'to cleave' } \\
& \text { بافت 'to weave' بافتن. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) The termination $\mathfrak{c}^{\bar{j}} \tan$ is dropped and the $\rightarrow f$ changed to ب $b$, a preceding short vowel being lengthened; e.g.

Termination dropped, and $\omega f$ softened to,$v$ :-
,ر ' to go' , j rev. | كتن. 'to dig', kano.
(iii) Termination dropped and preceding $\omega$ also dropped, lengthening an accompanying short vowel if only one syllable remains ; e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ونّير 'to accept' ونذيرفتن. } \\
& \text { گر كير 'to seize' }
\end{aligned}
$$

B. Preceded by $\quad$. 8 .
(i) The termination is dropped and also the w preceding it, lengthening a short vowel if only one syllable remains, and adding if the syllable ends in alif, or if only a single letter is left; egg.

(ii) By adding ن after dropping شتّ; e.g.

(iii) By adding $ن د$ after dropping $\operatorname{j}$; egg.

Irregular; egg.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 'to rise" } \\
& \text { زِشين }
\end{aligned}
$$

'F 'F to break' 'to wound' (no Pres. S.)
C. Preceded by $\uparrow$.

The termination $\mathcal{J}^{\mathrm{Jtan}}$ is dropped and the $\hat{\sim}$ undergoes a change either to $j, J, \infty$, or $J$, or remains unchanged; e.g.
(i) Changed to $;(z)$; e.g.

افراز 'to hoist' افراشتن.
(ii) Changed to, $(r)$; e.g.

 (Inf. also as كِثتّ)
(iii) Changed to $w$ and preceding short vowel lengthened; e.g.

(iv) Changed to $J$; e.g.
no
（v）Unchanged；e．g．
N．B．Preceding short vowel lengthened．
Irregular ：

D．Preceded by $\mathcal{C} \underline{k h}$ ．
The termination ${ }^{\sim}$ is dropped，and $\dot{C}$ becomes $;(z)$ generally，but sometimes س，ル，で，or J；e．g．

$خ^{\text {changed to }} \mathrm{m}$ ；e．g．
شناس＇to recognize＇شناختن
$خ$ changed to $\omega$ ；e．g．

Changed to ש；e．g．
بينـتن ' to twist'
$\dot{\tau}^{\text {changed to } J \text { and long vowel shortened；e．g．}}$
'to break, snap'

In some verbs the infinitive termination is dropped and also the $\dot{\sim}$ ，for which $\dot{f}$ is substituted；e．g．
 فرنغ
II．Infinitives ending in دَ Jan．
The termination proper to the infinitive may be preceded either by one of the long vowels $\mid \bar{\alpha}, g \bar{u}, \leqslant \bar{\imath}$ or by either of the consonants $n$


A．Infinitives in $\begin{gathered}\text { T preceded by } \mid \bar{a} \text { ．}\end{gathered}$
In this class of verbs the Present Stem is formed by dropping the termination د dan，adding in its place $\mathcal{G}$ ；e．g．
 زای＇to bring forth＇زادن
(ii) By dropping ادن entirely; e.g.
N.B. I added as a prop for the vowel in cases where a single letter remains, as
دوس 'to give' دادس
(iii) By dropping دَ and substituting for it ; egg.
(ستانـاندن 'to take' (secondary
B. Infinitives in د preceded by $\mathcal{G} \bar{\imath}$.
[N.B. It must not be forgotten that large numbers of infinitives in $\bar{z} d a n$ are secondary infinitives formed from the present stems of other primary verbs; egg.

The Present Stem in these verbs is formed :
(i) By dropping the termination J̌ together with its preceding $\mathfrak{c}$; e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بكششيدن 'to give' } \\
& \text { بُشش } \\
& \text { / } \\
& \text { "ُقرس ' to ask" } \\
& \text { رسبلر 'to arrive' (س) } \\
& \text { ' 'to draw' / / } \\
& \text { خريدن 'to buy' > } \\
& \text { بُريدن 'to cut' بُرِن ' } \\
& \text { " } \text { ' }
\end{aligned}
$$

[N.B. Many of this class are formed from Arabic nouns:
طَلَب 'to seek for' 'لَبْيدن 'to
Arabic ${ }^{\text {WW }}$ 'search'

(ii) By dropping the termination يلد, and substituting for it ين egg.


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { 'to pluck' } \\
\text { 'to arrange }, \text { un }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Irregular :


```
    بN 'to see' (from O.P. root form vain 'to see')
```

C. Infinitives in ${ }^{\circ}$ Sg, ūdan.
(i) Drop this termination and replace it by (see II. A); e.g.
'T ' to test'

زودن 'to polish'
زودای
'to increase'
افزاز
' to praise'
ستای

سرودن 'to sing'
ज1,
انداقى 'to smear' الندودن ' to
پالاّى

تْمودن 'to show'
(ه)
بخشودن ' to give'
?



(ii) By dropping the infinitive termination and pointing the vav with fath; eng.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { غِ تِّنَ }
\end{aligned}
$$

Irregular:
D. Infinitives in $\overline{\text { J w with a preceding consonant. }}$
(a) Preceded by $n$.

The Present Stem is
(i) Formed by dropping ${ }^{5}$ dan; e.g.
' 'to throw'

oo هان 'to remain' 'to seize' خورس '5 read Unis 'to dig'
N.B. In this class comes the verb ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{j}$ ' to strike'. Inasmuch as its original form was jj jus, its Present Stem is jj ز

In this class come number of causal verbs; e.g.
جهاندن 'to cause to jump' رواندن 'to despatch'
راندن 'to cause to go' نشاندن 'to cause to sit' 'نشان '

Irregular:
(
(b) Preceded by , r. The Present Stem is formed (ii) by dropping the ${ }^{\text {J }}$, and interpolating an calif before the $r$ of the infinitive stem; e.g.



(ii) By dropping the $u$ of the infinitive termination; eeg.


Irregular:
كُ مُردن 'to to die' مُردن ' 'to
(c) Preceded by $;$.

Drop the au and make no further change; e.g.
آزَّ 'to sew, آزد

Irregular:


## Formation of the Tenses

§ 75. The tenses of all verbs in the active voice are formed from the Present or Perfect Stem. These tenses may be divided into two classes: (1) those which are formed by the addition of personal endings to the Present Stem ; (2) those which are formed by means of auxiliary verbs in combination with a participle, or a verbal noun derived from the Perfect Stem.

## a) Tenses from the Present Stem

§ 76. The tenses in the first of these classes are the gnomic present, the present (Indicative and Subjunctive), the imperative, and the precative.
a, 1. The Gnomic Present. The personal endings of this tense are modifications ${ }^{1}$ of the primary endings of the O.P. pres. indic., and are as follows:-

Sing.

${ }^{1}$ The O.P. primary endings for bases ending in $a$, are-

$$
\text { Sing. -( } \bar{a}) m i,-(a) h i,-(a) t i ; \quad \text { Plur. }-(\bar{\alpha}) m a h i,-(a) t a,-(a) n t i .
$$

The list pers. sing, and the 3rd sing. and plur. of the Persian are taken immediately from the same persons of the O.P. together with the base-ending. The adoption of the remaining persons would have led to confusion (erg. the O.P. - (a )ti, and - (a )ta would, in Persian, be both reduced to $a d$ ); the Persian, therefore, took those persons from the Phi., in which they are derived from the O.P. endings of the causal base in aya.

These are joined immediately to the Present Stem, the final letter of which bears the initial vowel of the endings; e.g. from 5 kun, the Present Stem of كردن 'to do, make', we have -

Sing.

1. F kunam $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 'I do', \&c., or } \\ \text { 'I shall do', \&c. }\end{array}\right\}$ 2. .

Plur.

Similarly, from the Regular Stem بُ, and the anomalous بُ , of بودن 'to be', we have-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { باشَّ bāsham, بآشِّى bāshī, باشَّى bāshad; \&c. }
\end{aligned}
$$

2. The tense thus formed is common to both the indicative and subjunctive moods. In the indicative it commonly expresses customary action in indefinite time, or a general truth.

For example:-
'The barking of dogs does not injure the clouds'.
. When luck is adverse the Arab horse becomes an ass'.
ميوه ; ميوه ,زتك گيرد 'Fruit takes colour from fruit'.
3. The Simple Future is formed from the Present Stem in the same way as the Gnomic Present with the addition of the prefix 3. Thus from رفتن 'to go', 'I will go', from ببايم 'I will come', the euphonic being inserted between the prefix ? and the alif.

It should be noticed that when this tense is used negatively the

N.B. The simple future denotes early action in the future.
4. The Present Subjunctive. The tense has the same form as the simple future, but may be used without the prefix $\because$ For example:-ايشانرا حكم فرمود تا اسبابش را ببا زار بـبرند he ordered them to carry (that they should carry) his goods into the market place '; باور كنيد يا نكنيد 'whether you believe it or not'; if you think fit to come with me to my house '. The usual construction is with the prefix $\underset{\vdots}{ }$.
5. The Present Tense. The present tense is formed by prefixing to the gnomic present (separably or inseparably) the particle ham $\bar{\imath}$ (archaic $h a m \bar{e}=\mathrm{Pa} \mathrm{z} ., h a m \bar{e}=\mathrm{Phl} . \operatorname{hama\overline {\imath }}=\mathrm{Z}$. hamatha 'always, ever'); or, more commonly, its contraction ${ }^{m \bar{\imath}}(m \bar{e})$; e.g.
1.


3. $\operatorname{di}$
or

Note. $\mathrm{o}^{\text {always precedes the verb; (in poetry) may follow, }}$ and one or more words may even intervene between it and the verb. Again, if the negative verb is used, the so negation usually (in prose always) precedes منى كنم ; as 'I am not doing' (in poetry, however, sometimes هـ prefixed, the verb always receives the
b. The Imperative ( $\left(\mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{o}}^{5}\right)$. The 2nd pers. sing. of the imperative has the form of the Present Stem. The 2nd plur. is the same in form as the 2 nd plur. of the present subjunctive; e.g.

2nd sing. Skun 'do thou': 2nd plur. Skunīd (kunēd).
But the particle $x+b i$ is almost always pleonastically prefixed to the imperative in prose (except to that of بودن); e.g. bi-kun;
 tive', the command being direct. If the first letter of the imperative has pish for its vowel, the prefix may optionally take the form bu; as بُ بُ or or and a verb beginning with a consonaut moved by a short vowel, often drops the short vowel in poetry after the
 persons, the present subjunctive is employed; or they may be expressed by a locution, in which the imperative of the verb 'to say', is followed by the principal verb in the subjunctive (the indirect oration), (this is called by Persian grammarians أمر فِاتُـبِ the 'absent imperative', the command being indirect), or the imperative (the direct oration) ; e.g. .ي (to him) he may come'); 一 go '). One or more words may even intervene between $\mathscr{F}$ and the principal verb; e.g. كُوْ در ايّام سلاهت بجوانهردى كوش let him exert himself generously in the time of prosperity'. The imperative may have the prefix so e.g. S miv-kun 'continue to do', when it is called ميباش أمرِمُدمأى 'always be'.

Rem. In the modern colloquial usage $\overline{\mathrm{s}}$ is prefixed to the ordinary imperative as an intensive particle. It is probably a remnant of , used like , e, as above mentioned under the continuous imperative.

Note. To render the imperative prohibitive ( $\mathbf{J}_{\mathrm{J}}^{\mathrm{S}}$ ), the particle
 do or make'. And if the verb begins with a consonant moved by a short vowel and followed by a consonant, the short vowel is often dropped in poetry after the - ; e.g. مَمَنو

Rem. In the modern colloquial idiom, the prefix $x \dot{j}$ is more usually employed in forming the prohibitive.
c. The Precative. The precative is the O.P. Subjunctive. It has the form of the 3 rd pers. sing. of the pres. subj. with the fatha of the ending lengthened to alif; e.g. د. Skunäd 'may he do'. This alif is known as الفـ دِعائيء 'precative alif'.

Note 1. The precative of the verb بودن 'to be', in its full form (as found in Firdausī), is بواد. This, however, is generally contracted to باد. The form of the precative is usually that just given. Another form is fouud, however, consisting of the ordinary precative with the addition of an emphatic alif; e.g. بادا, and in the negative مبادا 'may it not be'! This alif is called الفـ ردّح صوت 'the alif of prolongation of rocal sound', or, 'alif of emphasis'.

In addition to the above form of the negative precative (مبادا) we also find the form used in this same sense (lit. 'it is not fitting that . ..'); e.g. نبايد ک§ مرا كاهيتش بدل آمده باششد ' may it not be that he lias taken a dislike to me in his heart'.

## Verbal Adjectives

§ 77. Imperfect Participles. From the Present Stem, too, are formed three imperfect participles, by the addition of the following endings :
(1) Participle of Quality. $1-\bar{a}(=\mathrm{Phl} .-\bar{a} k)$; e.g. بينا $b \bar{z} n \bar{a} \bar{a}$ 'seeing, having sight' (fr. بيس Present Stem of ديدن 'to see');
 , دار därāa 'holding, possessing'; Ig ravā 'current, passable, allowable', \&c.; ; w sazā 'fitting, suitable'. Most of these are simply verbal adjectives, as is evident from their being used as substantives, and being declined; e.g. بينايان, دالزايان, \&c. Many, however, are indeclinable.
(2) Imperfect Statical Participle, $\mathrm{u}^{-} \overline{\mathrm{a}} n(=$ O.P. $\bar{a} n a)$; e.g. خيزان ; מֶرسَان
khhāā̄n (khhē̄ān) 'rising'; Sunā̄n 'doing'. These participles are all indeclinable.
 The first of these endings is the one usually employed in forming the imperfect agent participle, or the nomen agentis, which is declinable ;

 that which sees, the eye' (plur. بينندكان 'the eyes').
$\beta$. The words formed by the second ending have lost the participial sense and become adjectives, or concrete nouns; e.g. .'Fijijury';
 (lit. 'a grazing animal'; from رِيدن 'to graze'). The only word which retains its participial sense is مانين 'resembling' (from مانستن).

Note 1. The following are formed by analogy from secondary


Note 2. The above participles combined with auxiliary verbs furnish periphrastic formations.
b) Tenses Formed from the Perfect Stem

The following tenses are formed from the Perfect Stem :-


The form of the last three tenses is the same.
§78. The perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect are compound tenses, formed by combining the perfect participle with the present tense (the only remaining fragment) of the primitive verb $a h$ 'to be' (for the Perfect), and with the past and the present subj. of the verb بُودن 'to be', used as auxiliaries for the Pluperfect and Future Perfect
respectively. The compound future is formed by combining the apocopated infinitive with the auxiliary verb خواستن 'to desire'.

The Personal Endings. The present tense of the primitive verb $a h$ 'to be's is modified in Persian after the analogy of the personal endings of the gnomic present. It is as follows:-
Sing.
1st pers. ${ }^{\text {I }}$ am 'I am,
2nd " ज! $\bar{\imath}$
3rd " last

## Plur.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ! } \\
& \text { ! ! ind ( } \quad \bar{e} d) \text {. } \\
& \text { il and. }
\end{aligned}
$$

These forms, as they stand, are only used after words ending in silent $h\left(\gamma^{-}-a\right)$; as $\underset{\sim}{\text { jo }}$; 'he is alive'. In other cases, the 1 of $p^{i}$, \&c. is either elided, and its vowel given to the final letter of the preceding word, or it is changed into $\{$; e.g.



To denote simple negation, the negative particle is prefixed; as
Sing.

1. نَيتم 'I am not';

2. 

Plur.

Note 1. A collateral form of the 3rd pars. sing. is the aspirated هست, which is also used as an auxiliary; but never (like (است) as a simple copula. This is probably due to the fact that, in course of time $\begin{gathered}\text { was } \\ \text { wised to predicate actual existence. The }\end{gathered}$ Persians say, for example, خدا بهترين پادشاهان است 'God is the best of kings'; but خدا هست 'God is, God exists'. Again, emo is made the stem to form the remaining persons of the present (after the analogy of the past tense, $v . \S 81$ ); e.g.
Sing. 1.
2. هستى
3. هست
Plur. 1.
2. هmتين
3. om min

Note 2. Before (as before 1 ), $5, x \rightarrow$, and $\times$ are replaced


1 The forms in O.P. were-

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Sing. 1. ami; } & \text { 2. ali ; 3. asti. } \\
\text { Plur. 1. amati ; 2. asta; } & \text { 3. anti. }
\end{array}
$$

The process of reduction in Persian, and the reason for having recourse to the changes made, are the same as those which operated in the case of the personal endings. The Persians, as a matter of fact, reconstructed the and sing. and the 1st and and plur.
combine with oum to form of these we have, as the negative of the above present:
Sing. 1.
2. نيستى
3. نيست
Plur. 1.

2.
3. نيستنا
§79. The Perfect Participle. The perfect participle has two forms, both derived from the verb stem (v. §73): (1) $\omega^{-t a}$, or $8 \perp-d a$
 or $\lambda-d$ ( $=$ Phl. $t=$ O.P. $t a$ ) ; as $ت$ ك kush $t$; ; ك kar-d.

Note. The use of $x=$, or $8 \perp(\mu$, or $\lrcorner)$, depends upon the final letter of the stem, as in the case of the infinitive ending ( $v . \S 72, \mathrm{~b}$ ).
a. These participles have both an active and a passive signification; as tion, is employed, in combination with auxiliary verbs, to form the perfect and other compound tenses. It is also used-(1) as a conjunc-
 having drunk wine, created a disturbance' (i.e. got drunk and created, \&c.): (2) as a verbal adjective; as 'slain'; plur. '
(3) As a noun substantive; e.g. مبادا داده را بستاند 'lest he should take away that which he gave (his gift)'.
'Produce deeds and cut short words, Accompany such words with deeds'.
(4) As an adverb; e.g. هر آن كس كم دزديده بر سر مرد شود every man who furtively acquires another's secrets'.
b. The second participle, in combination with the fragment of the verb ah 'to be' (§78), forms the past tense (the past absotute of native grammarians). It also occurs, in pre-classical literature, as a passive participle, in the construction of the past tense of transitive verbs ( $v . \S 81$, Rem.) ; and, in both ancient and classical literature, as the last member of compound words; e.g. د.j: $\int_{v} p \bar{a} k-z \bar{a} d$ 'pure born, of noble descent'; سالكورد sālklhurd 'aged' (lit. 'having spent or past years').

Rem. In the title ljon 'Mr.' (when it precedes a name); 'Prince' (when it follows), $;$ is a contraction of (مير+ $)$ ). In India the title is often still further contracted; as 1
§80. The Verbal Adjective in $\mathcal{G}$. This adjective (which is called by Persian grammarians the adjectival suffix 'faciendus'; بودنى. 'fit to be, what is to be, the future'; خوردنى 'fit to be eaten, edible', (subst.) 'food'; ${ }^{\text {, }}$, obliged to go'. All these words are properly verbal adjectives, but may be used as subst., and form the plur.; e.g. بودنيها 'things to be, future events'; خوردزيها 'edibles, meats'. This adjective combined with the auxiliaries $p^{1, \& c ., ~ a n d ~ w i t h ~ ب و د ن, ~ i s ~ e m p l o y e d ~ i n ~ p e r i p h r a s t i c ~ f o r m a t i o n s ~(~} v . \S 88$ ). In one of its uses it corresponds to the Latin gerundive. See Syntax.

Rem. The suffix $\mathfrak{G}-\bar{\imath}=\mathrm{Phl}$. $\bar{\imath} k=$ prim. ya. It is the same suffix that is largely added to substantives to form adjectives; e.g. ايرانى ' 'Iranian' (from ایران) ; شاهى 'royal' (from شاهنی 'warlike' (from (ج-).
§81. The Past Tense. The 3rd pers. sing. of the past tense is identical in form with the perfect participle ending in $\quad t$ (or $د d$ ) alone. The other persons of the tense are formed by attaching to this form the persons of the auxiliary $a h(\S 78)$; e.g.
(a) Sing. 1. ${ }^{\prime}$ ' I killed ';
2. كشتّى
3. كشت
Plur. 1.
1.
2.
3.
(b) Sing.

1. بُودَم 'I was';
2. بودی ;
3. بود.
Plur.
4. بوديم;
5. بوديد ;
6. بودزنـ.

Note 1. The pleonastic $\underset{\sim}{2}$ is very commonly prefixed to the past tense, when it is not negative (v. § 91, Note 1) ; as But, always, نكشت 'he did not kill'.

Rem. The 3rd pers. sing. of the verb كفت 'to say', often has a redundant $a$ (الفـ إشباع' 'the inserted alif') added to it; e.g. كفتـ guft $\bar{a}(=\underset{e}{=})$ 'he said'. By ancient writers this $\bar{a}$ was sometimes added to the 3rd sing, of the past of other verbs also. It is also called "الe 'the alif of ornamentation of speech'.

Note 2. The past tense, as given above, is a creation of the modern Persian. In the Phl, the participle alone served to express all the persons (e.g. kart 'I did', 'thou didst', and so on). Examples of this Phl. usage are still found in the older poets of the classical period; but usually in verbs connected with a preceding verb, the person of
 back and came quickly home' (Anvarī).--
'I beheld the rose and became intoxicated with a smell ' (with a little of its fragrance), Sa dī.

Rem. In the pre-classical period the past tense of transitive verbs was not constructed as shown above; but a passive construction was employed (after the example of the O.P. and the Phl., as also the Sanskrit and the Hindi), 一the agent of the act was put in the oblique case (originally the geuitive), the object of the action became the subject, and the shorter form of the two participles was employed in the passive; e.g. heard'); : كرفتـش يكى 'he seized a stone' (Firdausī). The same construction is employed in certain Persian dialects of the
 'I made fire'.
§ 82. The Past Continuous. ماضئ إسترارى 'the past continuous' or مافئ ناتهام 'the past imperfect' is formed in two ways: (1) by prefixing the particle or or $(v . \S 76, \mathrm{a}, 3)$ to the past tense; e.g.

## Singular

 Plural
(2) By suffixing $v=\bar{\imath}$ (archaic $\bar{e}$ ) to the 1 st and 3 rd pers. sing., and the 3rd pers. plur. of the past tense; e.g.

Sing. 1. كردیی 'I was doing', \&c. 3. . Plur. 3. . .
The 2nd sing. is rarely used, and the 1st and 2nd plur. do not occur at all. The pleonastic 8 _ is also commonly prefixed to this form, as .بدانستّى ; بكردمى

The $\mathcal{G}=$ is sometimes added even when or $\mathcal{G}$ is prefixed; as (I I was doing', \&c.

Note. The first of the two constructions noticed above is sometimes also employed in conditional sentences; and the second (that with suffixed $v_{-}$) is most commonly employed, as (1) the conditional

(1) (1) if this (man) had not been an ass, he would not have gone to a farrier'; لأئق ق. (آنستى ( ${ }^{(T)}$
keeping with my dignity, that I should be walking proudly on a wall of an orchard along with a crow' (Sadi).
 " how well it would be if I knew where that tree is, so that I might pray for my father's speedy death ' (S adit):-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كاش آن روز كه در پإى تو شد خارِ اجِل }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Would that on that day, when the thorn of death entered thy foot, the hand of Fate had struck me on the head with the sword of destruction'.
The same tense occasionally occurs as a potential; eng.
 'such that ten powerful men could not string his bow ; the athletes of the world could not bring his back to the ground'; از هنر او بدانستغ ie. 'I knew by his merits that he could have grappled with ten wolves'.
§83. The Perfect Tense. The perfect tense (ماضى ترِبب' the proximate perfect ${ }^{2}$ ) is formed by adding the persons of the auxiliary $a h(v . \S 78)$ to the perfect participle (active) ending in an -ta or ${ }_{8}-d a$; egg.


## Singular

1. ${ }^{1}$.
(lit, 'I am, having-written').

2. نوشته است.

Plural

1. نوشتها إِيم.
2. نوشته إيد.
3. نوشتغاند.

In poetry, the syncopated form نوشتَّت 'he has written' (occasionally written نوشتهست, نوشتاست , and , often occurs. This syncopated form, again, is employed (especially by the older poets) as a stem for the formation of a second perfect, constructed after the analogy of the past tense ; e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Sing. 1. كرَستَّم 'I have done'. } \\
& \text { 2. كردستِي. } \\
& \text { 3. كردّست. } \\
& \text { Plur. 1. كرَّستيم. } \\
& \text { 2. كردوتيـيـ. } \\
& \text { 3. كردستَند. }
\end{aligned}
$$

§84. The Pluperfect Tense. The pluperfect ( remote past') is formed by adding the past tense of the auxiliary verb بودن to the perfect participle (active) ending in $x$. or sd; as نُوِشتـن بودم 'I had written' (lit. 'I was, having-written '):
Sing. 1. لوشته بودم
2. نوشثّها بودى
3. نوشته بود.
Plur. 1. نوشته بوديمر.
2. ذوشتّه بوديد
3. نوشثّها بودنـ)
§85, a. The Compound Future. To construct the compound future ( $ل$ (.) ), the apocopated infinitive or, sometimes, especially by older Persian writers, the full infinitive is placed immediately after the persons of the aorist of the auxiliary verb خراستّ خور خ خ ' to desire, to will' (aor. stem خواه) ; e.g. خواهـ كرد 'I shall, or will, do' (lit. 'I desire the doing '):
Sing. 1. خواهم كرد.
2. خواهر كرد .
3. خواهد كرد
Plur. 1. خواهيمر كرد.
2. خواهيد كرد.
3. خواهند كرد.

Note. The prefix may be joined to the persons of the auxiliary; as

## .

§ 86. The Future Perfect. The future perfect (a subjunctive tense) is formed by placing the pres. subj. باشمر ${ }^{1}$ of the auxiliary verb بودن, after the perfect participle (active) ending in $x=$ or $8 \perp$; as نوشتـه بـاشم 'I shall have written'; (conditional, potential) 'I may (or, might) have written', \&c.; (presumptive) 'I must have written':

Note. It has been shown in the preceding paragraphs that the negation in all verbal forms is expressed by prefixing the negative particle $x^{\prime}(j)$; or, to the imperative and precative, $x_{0}^{-0}(-)$. But if a verb have for its initial letter the consonant 1 , the negative particle $x_{0}$ is, for the sake of euphony, replaced by the older form ${ }^{3} n \bar{\imath}$ (archaic $n \bar{e}$, O.P. naiy), and the initial I disappears, its vowel being given to the $\mathcal{G}$ of the negative prefix; e.g. نيَنداخت 'he did not cast' (3rd sing.
 'he will not fall' (from أفتادن). So also, when, under the same
 by analogy, ميينَّاز 'cast not'; بَيْ 'come not'; بيَنداخت 'he cast'; بَيَايد 'he will come'; ; بِبَا 'come thou'. In poetry, however, we sometimes find the silent I of these particles elided and the $\dot{\mu}, \dot{j}$, or $s$


§ 87. The following is a full conjugation of the verb 'ُرسيدن 'to ask'. 'بُرسيدن 'to ask'.


Present Stem
~ُ purs-
${ }^{1}$ Which, as remarked by Darmesteter (Etudes Iraniennes), is really a residual of the 0 . P. future in ishy-.
I. TENSES, ETC., FORMED FROM THE PRESENT STEM

The Gnomic Present


Sing.
1.



## Piur.



The Imperative
Sing. Plur. Sing. Plur.
 Sing. Plur.

The Precative
3rd pers. sing. برساد 'may he ask'.


The Present Subjunctive
بُرسرس 'I may, might, or should ask', \&c. (Conjugated like the Gnomic Present or Simple Future).

## Imperfect Participles

1) :برسا 'asking'.
2) :هرسان ' asking, while asking '.
3) هرسنده 'asking'; as a nom. agentis, 'one who asks, asker'.
II. PARTICIPLES AND TENSES FORMED FROM THE PERFECT STEM

## Perfect Participles



The Verbal Adjective in v ريرسيَدْنُى ' fit to be asked, to be asked '.

The Past Tense
Sing.

1. ورسيدَم 'I asked '.
2. 2رسيدى
3. 

The particle may be prefixed; as as
Negative: نَهرسيدم 'I did not ask', \&c.

## The Past Continuous

Sing.


3. مـيرسيديد (, ")

Sing. Plur.
(b)

Sing.

## (c)

(or on (or میرسيدى ) not used not used

Plur.
(همى or هرسيديم
-
2. " "ريسيدى " " (uncommon)
 Note. The forms (a) and (b) are also used for the conditional ; and the form (b) is usually employed for the past optative ( $v . \S 82$, Note).

The particle may be prefixed to (b) ; as asking', \&c.


The Perfect

## Sing.

Plur.
(a) 1. $\quad$ 'I have asked '.
3. يرسيدهاست

Note. By the older writers بِي is sometimes prefixed; as Negative: ${ }^{1} \mathrm{C}$ Sivg.

## Plur.

(b. poet.) 1. هیرسيدستم 'I have asked’.
پپرسيدسيدستيديد
3. پرسيدست

## The Pluperfect

## Sing.

Plur.

1. برسيدغبودم 'I had asked'. ترسيدهبوديم
2. 2 . يرسيدهوبودودي إرسيد،بوديدي
3. پِرسيد،بودند
Negative: نبرسيدهبودم 'I had not asked', \&c.
The Compound Future
Sing.
Plut.

4. 

$3 . \quad$ خواهد هرسيد
خواهيد پرسيد
The pleonastic بِ بِي May be prefixed; as 'I shall ask', \&cc.
Negative : نخواهم sرسيد 'I shall not ask', \&c.
The Future Perfect (Scbiunctive)
Sing.
Plutr.

1. هرسيده باشم $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 'I } I \text { shall have asked', } \\ \text { I may have asked', \&c. }\end{array}\right\}$
2. ريسيده باشث
پپرسيدهر باشيده باشيم

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { هرسيدهايم } \\
& \text { *رسيدهايد } \\
& \text { :رسيدهاند }
\end{aligned}
$$

Note. By the older poets the particle oب is sometimes prefixed ; as . بِّرسيدها باشم

Negative: نَبَرسيده باششم 'I shall not have asked', \&c.

## Other Periphrastic Formations

§ 88. The following formations, although they are in common use, are not ordinarily received into the paradigm. They are obtained by placing one of the imperfect participles, or the verbal adjective in $\mathcal{G}$, before the persons of the present of the verb $a h$ 'to be', or before the past of the verb بودن 'to be '; e.g.

## Present

| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. ${ }^{\text {cherma }}$ 'I am asking'. | پرسانيم | \%واهانم | خواهانيم |
| 2. | هرسانيد | خوراهانى | خواهانيد |
| 3. | برسانَّد | خوراهانس | خواهانـند |

Past
Sing.
Plur.

1. :رسنده بودم 'I was one asking'.
2. كرسنده بودى

ريرسنده بوديم
3.

ريسنده بودذل
Note. An Arabic اسس_ may take the place of the Persian participle in such constructions as the above; e.g. طالِمَم 'I am seeking, I seek'; bالب بودم 'I was seeking, I was a seeker (of)'.

## Future

P' بودنيم or بودنى 'I am to be, I must be', \&c.

Rem. In the language of the present time we also meet with رفتّى بودم 'I had to go', \&c.

The Verb توانستن 'to be able, can’.
§ 89. The verb توانستن (Present Stem توان) possesses the principal tenses with all the persons, and is used both independently, and as an auxiliary. (a) As an independent verb the tenses in which it occurs
are as follows, the 1st person alone being given, although it occurs in all the persons:-

Aorist توانم 'I shall be able, I am able, I may be able ', \&c.
Present $\quad$ 'I am able '.
Past ميتوانستم or توانستم 'I was able'.
Conditional توانستمى: I might be able, (if) I had been able'.
Note. Of the three forms of the imperfect participle, the only one that occurs is تانا, and this is used only as an adjective, 'powerful'.
(b) As an auxiliary, توانستن is construed (like خواستن in the compound future of verbs) in two ways:-
(1) With the following apocopated infinitive ; but occasionally with a following full infinitive; e.g.

> (I am able to go, I can go'. ;توانستى نأاه داشتن 'thou couldst not keep (it)'.
(2) With a following verb in the present subjunctive with or with-
 money thou canst not use force (or violence) with any one' ('thou art not in a position that thou shouldst use', \&c.).

Note 1. The verb يارستّن 'tor be able', is sometimes employed instead of توانستن; e.g.
وكس نيارد ظلم و دست در ازی كردن
'And that no one may be able to practise tyranny and oppression'.
بَّفتا نيارم شد اين جا مقيم كه در يپش دارم مُهّى عظيم
' He said, "I cannot tarry here, for I have an important business before me" ' (Sa'dī).

Note 2. The verb دانستس; is sometimes used in the sense of توانستن;
 .how canst thou whose hand trembleth perforate a pearl'?

## The Passive Voice (:

§90. A verb may be conjugated in the passive voice by adding to its perfect participle passive ( $v . \S 79$ a) the various tenses of the verb Uُ 'to go, to become' (aorist stem $\overline{\hat{\mu}}$ ). As the passive conjugation presents no difficulties whatever, it will be quite sufficient to give a mere synopsis of the more common tenses.

## Synopsis of the Passive Conjugation of

Infinitive
زده شدن 'To be struck or beaten'.
 Subjunctive زلزهر زشوم (if) 'I should be beaten'.
Present
Imperative
Precative
Past 'I زده میشوم 'I am being beaten'.

Be thou
'May he be
'I was
Past Continuous II was being زده میشدم ' ' ' ز' زد8 شدهام
struck or beaten'.

Perfect
Pluperfect II had been

Future Perfect زده شده باشم In I I shall have been
Note. The place of شدن in the passive voice is often supplied by its synonym Fشمت, or the secondary verb and sometimes also by
 some way or other my living may be made'; جتهمت جاسوسى گرفتار آمدند. 'they were arrested upon a charge of spying'.

## Impersonal Verbs

§ 91 a . The impersonal verbs are-

1. بابِستّ (Pres. Stem 'to be necessary, to behove, ought, must'.
2. (Pres. Stem شاسِستن (شاسِ) 'to be possible, to be fitting', \&c.

They are used only in the 3rd pers. sing. of the gnomic present (or present), and of the past, or past continuous, or conditional ; egg. بيد or or or it is necessary, it behoves, one ought'; or يبايد بإِستى or or or it was necessary, it behoved, \&c.; it is possible, it is fitting or proper?

Rem. باشد كا ايشان خلمدت را نشايند also occurs personally ; eeg بايست. 'it may be that they are not fitted for (this) service'.

Use of Impersonal Verbs. If the person is expressed, it usually precedes the verb in the nominative or dative ; تو بايد كه ده خروار (you ought to purchase ten ass loads of apples'; if, however, it be pronominal, it may also follow as an enclitic:

كادششاهرا بايد 'it behoves the king; the king should or ought'.

مرا شايد 'it befits me'.
In construction, both verbs follow the same rule as (v. § 88, b) ; e.g.
(ترا on ${ }^{\text {® }}$ 'thou also shouldst (or oughtest to) say something'.
(what quantity ought one to eat in a day'?
, ميبايد ك ك كنى , it is necessary that thou do', 'thou must do'; مـر ' ' $I$ ought to have gone';


Note 1. The past participles بايسته are used as adjectives (v. § 79, a, 2) ; e.g.
ندارد پدر هيهِ بايسته تر ز فرززد شايسته شايسته تر
'A father has nothing more suitable and appropriate than a worthy son'.

The imperfect participle $ش ا$ is also used adjectively; ecg.
شايان. دل تو بود اين گنج
'This treasure was suited to thy heart'.
Note 2. شايد often, and بايد occasionally, occurs as a synonym of توان: while occasionally has the sense of 'it makes no difference', 'it is all one'; egg.
آر در خلهـت باشى و آكر نباشى شايـد
b. Some personal verbs are used impersonally in the 3rd pes.

" سزيدن or مزائيدن

c. ${ }^{\prime}$ 'able, in a position (to)'-an ancient participial form (connected with توانا, from ترانستن) -is of common occurrence as an impersonal verb, and is construed like a finite verb; also with the forms مى توان, 'بِتوان, 'it is possible, one can'; and negatively, نتوان 'it is not possible', \&c.; e.g.
( to whom can one tell'?
'By pleading for forgiveness and by repentance it is possible to escape from the wrath of God; but one cannot escape from the tongues of men' (S a'dī).

Rem. توان is said by certain native grammarians to be sometimes
 can be mentioned, and such use must be very rare.

## Causal Verbs

§ 92. The Causal Verb. The verb stem of a causal verb is formed by adding the suffix lb $\overline{0} n$, to the present stem of the primitive verb; eng.

Prim. جستن 'to leap or jump up'; present stem $8 \div j i h-$ :
Verb stem of causal جهان jihānr.
Present Stem
Causal جهانيدن ' جهاندن 'to cause to jump up': جهان
Prim. ترسيدن 'to be afraid': ترس
Causal ترسانيدن' ' to cause to be afraid, to frighten':


Prim. نوشتن 'to write':
Causal نويساندن or نويسانيدن ' 'to cause to write', \&c.:
Prim. $\quad$ 'to die ':
Causal ميراندن 'to put to death':
هيران
The infinitive ending of every causal verb will therefore be or يدن (v. §72, b); and the present stem of every causal will be the present stem of the primitive + the suffix 0 -
N.B. The alternative infinitive in a secondary infinitive ( $v . \S 74$, B. Note).

Intransitive verbs become transitive in the causal; and transitive verbs become causative.

The two tense-stems of a causal verb being known, the verb is conjugated in the ordinary way.
Note 1. It should be observed that verbs whose present stem already ends in 0 have the same form for the primary and causal verbs; eeg. ماندن 'to remain'; خواندن 'to read'.

Note 2. The stems of a few verbs with a causal signification are
derived immediately from the O.P. base of the causal class; e.g.
 causal of نِشْستن 'to sit'.

Rem. In the Shähnāma, the causal infinitive ending ind - $-\bar{\alpha} n i d a n$ sometimes occurs for -انيدن -ānīdan.

## Defective Verbs

§93. Defective verbs, properly so called, are not numerous in Persian. But there exists a number of verbs, some of the regular forms of which (chiefly the gnomic present and present) seldom or never occur; the corresponding form or tense of some commonly used synonymous verb being employed instead. The more important of both these classes of verbs are included in the following list:

| infinitive | forms wanting or NOT IN USE | VERB SUBSTITUTED IN THE FORMS WANTING |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left.\right\} \text { 'to draw'. }$ | pres., imperat. | بركثي |
| 'آغوشيدن 'to embrace'. | " " | درآغونسردن or دربركشيدن |
| To 'to be confounded'. Tا To 'to prepare', 'to be prepared '. | all except the perf. part. and the imperat. | آمادهو ساختن |
| , 'to conceal'. | pres., imperat. | هوشير |
| , الفاختن 'to collect'. | " " | اندوختّن |
| 'كِّ: | " " | بربان كردن |
| 'to incite'. | " " | تّرِّص نوودن |
| خme 'to wound', \&c. | all except the perf. part. and past tense. |  |
| خ ختّن. ${ }^{\text {خ }}$ 'to sleep '. | present. | - or |
| ( ${ }_{\text {¢ 'to be born'. }}^{\text {ز }}$ | all except the perf. part. | زادن or زائيدن |


| INFINITIVE | FORMS WANTING OR NOT IN USE | vERB SUBSTITUTED IN THE FORMS WANTING |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| "ِيرشِتن 'to knead', \&c. | pres. imperat. | عجـيـن كردن or |
| , |  | سنبيل |
| شيفتن 'to be distracted with love'. | $\text { " } \quad$ | ششوفتن |
| نصّm' 'to rub', \&c. | all except the perf. part. and the past tense. | ماليدن |
| \% | pres., imperat. | وشٌيفن |

Rem. The regular gnomic present of the verbs سفتّ, نهتّن. could not be distinguished from the past tense ; whence, doubtless, the use of a form derived from a synonymous verb.

## Compound Verbs

§94. Compound verbs are of three kinds: 10 Those which are reduced from primitive verbs with an inseparable prefix. $2^{\circ}$ Those of more recent date, which are formed by the combination of a preposition or adverb with verb. $3^{\circ}$ Those which are formed by combining a Persian or Arabic noun with a verb.

## A. Verbs Reduced from Primitive Compounds

§95. A very large number of Persian verbs is simply the reduction of primitive verbs in combination with prefixes which are now dead. Numerous examples of such may be seen in the verbs tabled in the preceding pages. It will suffice to give in this place a list of the prefixes in their ancient and modern forms, with some examples:

| PRIMITIVE PREFIX | persian FORM OF THE PREFIX | EXAMPLES |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| O.P. $\bar{a}$ 'to, towards' <br> (Z. $\bar{a} ;$ S. $\bar{a})$. <br> ,, $a b i$ 'to, into', \&c. <br> (Z. aibi, aiwi; <br> S. abhi). <br> Z. ava 'down, to' (S. ava). | $T \bar{a}$. |  |



## B. Verbs with a Prefixed Preposition or Adverb

§96. The prepositions and adverbs that occur are those which are still employed in modern Persian as independent particles. Those most commonly prefixed are-
(a) 'back, behind, again') The two particles are precisely
(b) " " " synonymous; so that the examples showing the use of the one will serve as well for the other; e.g. , وا وايستادن 'to stand back, to hold aloof (from), to abstain (from)'; باز آملن 'to come back, to abstain (from), to give up' (a bad habit, \&c.); باز داشتن 'to keep or hold back'; باز كردن 'to put back, (hence) to open' (a door, or the eyes, \&cc.); باز شدن ; 'to go back, to open' (as a door, or the eyes, or the heart, or a bud, \&c.); باز گشتص. 'to turn back', 'return'.
In some compounds $;$ ب is the exact equivalent of our prefix re-; 'to recognize, to distinguish'; باز 'to reply, to repeat';

باز 'to represent, to point out'. Sometimes is redundant;

(c) بر 'on, upon, up, upward, onward, forth'; e.g. بر آمدن 'to come up, to rise (as the sun), to ascend, to mount, to succeed'; بر آورد 'to bring up, to raise, to bring forth (as a cry, or the like), to raise, to erect (as a building, \&c.), to pull up' (as a tree), \&c.; بر داشتّ ' to take up, to raise, to bear, to endure, to suffer, to pick up, to gain, to acquire, to take away, to remove'; بر جيدن 'to pick up, to collect, to gain'; بركرفتن 'to take up, to obtain, to surround'. The prefix is sometimes redundant; as بر تافتن 'to shine' (تافتن = (
(d) بيرون or or بيرون 'Tout, outside'; as 'to come out'; بيرون رفتن 'to go out'; ;برون 'to put out, to expel'.
(e) يָیش آمدن 'tofore, forward'; e.g come before or forward, to occur, to approach or meet (one, with), to treat'; چيش كردن 'to put before, to submit'; \%يش گرفتن 'to take before, to undertake, to adopt'; بيش نهادن 'to lay before, to propose '; بيش كفتّن 'to bespeak'; چيش ديدن 'to anticipate '.
 'to bring in, to produce'; اندر گرفتن 'to take hold inside, to take effect'; اندر خوردن هر هوردن 'to suit, to be befitting'; 'to obtain within, to inform oneself, to comprehend, to

 again, it has the force of per in Latin; as درآرختر 'to teach or learn thoroughly' $=$ perdocere, perdiscere.
(g) $1, \overline{\mathrm{G}}$ ' before, forward, in advance, onward, forth, away'; (h) وفراز
 فراز رفتّن 'to go forward, to advance'; فرا , فتّن 'to go away, to retire, to retreat'; فرا داشتن ' ' to hold forward' (the ear, or the hand, and the like); فرا الندوختن 'to heap up, to store up'; فراز كردن 'to put forward, to put to, to close (a door); to put away, to put back, to open' (a door; i.q. باز كردن) ; فرا رسيدن 'to come up with, overtake'.
(i) فُرْ فُرور (before consonants), or (before vowels), 'down'; e.g. 'to come doun, to descend, to alight'; فرود ' فرون 'to carry, or put down, to lower (the head, \&c.), to take down, to swallow'; 'to go down, to sink'; 'رو 'to let down, to put down, to leave off, to pass over, to give up', \&c.

Note. In the conjugation of these compound verbs, the preposition or adverb does not, as a rule, displace the verbal particle $\underset{\sim}{2}$, or $\sim$, or $\dot{\alpha}$ from its position next to the verb; e.g. بر می آيد 'it comes up'; فرو ببرد 'he swallowed'; باز نيـامد 'he did not come back'. In poetry the adverbs may, metri causQ, come after the verb; as جـه
 before' (him).

## C. Verbs in Combination with Nouns

§97. In these compounds a Persian or Arabic noun (subst., adj,, verbal noun, participle) is so combined with a verb, that the two together express but one idea. What is important in connexion with these compounds is the determining which are transitive and which intransitive. It is a common error to term all compounds transitive, in which the verb annexed to the noun is 'to make', or one of its synonyms. The fact is, the transitiveness of the compound depends on the nature of the prefixed noun. The majority of these compounds are formed by combining verbs with Arabic nomina verbi, verbal adjectives, nomina agentis, or nomina patientis, and represent the Persian equivalents of one or other of the various Arabic verbal forms. For example, represents the Arabic nomen verbi (or عرْرض (مرض) (exhibiting, representing', \&c. by itself, would, in Persian, signify 'exhibition, or representation'; the nomina verbi, alone, being generally used as simple substantives). Consequently, as the Ar. masdar عرض is transitive, its Persian representative exerting oneself, striving'; تعجّب كردن 'wondering'; إلِيفات نهودن 'turning oneself (to), paying attention, noticing', are intransitive ; just as their Arabic


## a) Transitive Compounds

§ 98. The compound verb is transitive in the following cases:

1) When a verb signifying 'to make' (as كردن, or its synonyms (ساختّ and (in polite language) (سمودن) ; or 'to cause to be or become, to render' (ر) (ردانيدن); or (less commonly) 'to hold, to consider, to esteem ' (بُردن) ; or 'to bring' (آوردن) ; \&c., is annexed to a predicative adjective, an imperfect participle, an Arabic verbal adjective, or a passive participle (Persian or Arabic) ; e.g. تلغ كردت,

, 'to make or render complete, to complete', \&cc.; روان كردن 'to make moving, to put in motion, to make current, to despatch '; ارافى كردن, , to make or render pleased or satisfied, to

 مبذول گ, مرانيدن or 'to cause to be given or disbursed', \&ce, 'to bestow, to disburse, to distribute, to expend', \&c.; باور داشتن ' برى 'to consider true or credible, to credit, to believe'; برى داشتن 'to consider free or clear, to acquit'; دوست داشتن 'to hold beloved or dear, to love', \&c. ; هتبر داشتن 'to hold in respect, to respect, to esteem '; معذور داشتن. 'to hold excusable, to excuse'; هاضر 'وررد 'to cause to be or become present'; موافت يافتن 'to find agreeable or suitable'.
2), $a_{0}$ When one of the verbs (فرمودن ,نهودن) كردن) 'to make'; آوردن 'to cause to become, to render', and (less commonly) 'ردانيدن 's 'to bring'; بستن 'to bind', and perhaps a few more, is combined with the nomen actions (إِم') إِلف) of a transitive (Arabic) verb, or with a Persian abstract (verbal) noun (اسم_معدر)), derived from a transitive
 , or orاك نمودن, 'to destroy' (the nomen actions in the last compound being used-as it not unfrequently is-as a passive

 or
 (= نقش بستّ 'to design, to pourtray, to paint';
 'رورش كردن 'to foster '; دستگيرى كردن 'to help'.

Note that in compound verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, the noun is often separated from the verb by determining adjuncts;
 on this affair'? In poetry, moreover, the noun may even follow the verb; as درستان را كُانكّى مكروم how wilt thou disappoint thy friends'; oo اسبابِ ;يكوئي كنـ means of doing good'.
$\beta$. To the above may be added the combinations in which a transitive verb follows a Persian substantive, or (occasionally) an Arabic nomen
verbi, used as a simple substantive in an oblique case, with the governing preposition expressed or understood. These cannot, however, strictly speaking, be regarded as compound verbs ; e.g. از 'to give from the hand, to lose, to relinquish, to give up, to
 بسر بردن 'to bring to an end, to pass life, to live'; بجا 'to bring to pass, to accomplish, to execute', \&c.; از جاهى 'to disturb, to discompose, to startle'; در دام كر دريـدن 'to draw into the net, to ensnare'; در بركرفتن هر در بر كشیيدن 'to draw, or, to take, to the bosom, to embrace'; كبر برد برد برس 'to bring into practice, to apply, to make use of, to act upon'; در ميان نهادن 'to place in the midst, to bring up, to introduce, to communicate '.

## b) Intransitive Compounded Verbs

§ 99. These form a very numerous class : only the more important of them can be noticed here. They may be divided into-
(a) Compounds in which a transitive verb is combined-1) with an Arabic verbal noun derived from an intransitive or a reflexive verb; 2) with a simple substantive. In the first case, the Persian infinitive is simply the equivalent of the Arabic nomen verbi.
(b) Compounds in which an intransitive verb is combined with a noun (subst., adj., verbal noun, verbal adjective, participle).
(a) Verbal Noun, or Substantive, with a Transitive Verb
§ 100. The verbs most commonly used are-
(1) (or (or 'to make'; e.g. (i) كردن 'to exert oneself, مبركردن ; 'to practise', \&c.; 'to restrain oneself, to exercise self-control, to be patient'; قناعت كردن 'to content oneself (with, بֻ), to be content'; هداومت نمودن ' to keep continually (to), to remain, to become permanent'; ; 'to
 (شدن) ; تغغافل ورزيدن 'to practise negligence, to be neglectful' (of); ( إنكراف ورزبدن ( 1 ) 'to to deviate, to swerve', \&c.; (برانبِ بر , بك (to turn attention , to pay atten-

 'to rejoice' (at, or over, بادمانى كردن '
(2) آرردن ' to bring' ; e.g. رحمت آوردن 'to feel pity, to show (evince)

(to come for consultation (to, © ( x ), to hold consultation' (with) ; آوردن آردن ' ' to exercise patience or forbearance, to forbear'; (تاختّ آوردن 'to bring attack (on, to attack '.

حسد بردن .to bear, to carry, to harbour, to entertain'; e.g' (3) 'to to 'to bear envy' (with respect to, بر) ; بردن 'to bring assault (on, ب) , to assault'; بردن 'ترّمّ 'to bear (or submit to) rule or authority, to obey'; انتظ|, 'to be in expectation (of, (ن) , to expect' (= فرمان بردن ; 'انتظاركردن 'to be under command, to obey'.
 or regret'; غوطه خوردن 'to suffer immersion, to take a plunge' (into, در) ; 'زخم خوردن 'to receive a wound, to be wounded, to receive a beating';和 'to take an oath, to swear'.
(5) 'to give, to impart' (the compound being usually preceded by the dat. with 1) ; e.g. كالص دادن 'to give deliverance (to), to liberate, to redeem'; خبر دادن 'to give information (to), to inform '; to 'to assign distinction (to), to distinguish'; 'رضا دادن 'to ' اخصاص دادن give consent, to consent, to assent' (to); - 'to give (to a person) an inclination or bias' (towards, بִجانب, or or (T) ; آراز دادن ( 'to give voice, to call out'; دست دادن 'to give the hand (to), to be attained, obtained '; فرمان دادن 'to order';
(6) ' داشتن 'to have, to hold, to keep', \&c.; e.g. هاجت داشتن 'to have need (of, 0 ), to need '; شهرت داشتن 'to be famed or notorious'
 correspond' (with); ' ; to possess the possibility (of), to be possible'; توقّع داشتّ 'to have the expectation (of), to expect'; ( ياس داشتن ; 'to have confidence' (in, keep watch, to watch '; كوش داشتن 'to have (or lend) an ear (to), to listen, to attend, to obey'; نـنا داشتّ 'to be ashamed' (of, از).
(7) 'to see, to perceive, to deem, to experience', \&c.; e.g. میلفت ديدن 'to experience grief or sorrow' see good, to deem advisable'; هِبران ديدن 'to suffer separation'; بوى ديدن 'to perceive a smell or odour'.
(8) 'to strike, to beat'. This verb is one of those most commonly employed in composition with nouns; and it varies greatly in signification. In many of the compounds formed with it the sense of striking is more or less prominent; but from this it branches
off into the senses of -(1) quick or rapid movement; (2) sudden or abrupt action, with or without violence, as expressed by such words as thrusting, driving, putting, breaking into, clapping or clapping
 play) the harp or lute'; نَّ زلى زدن 'to play the flute'; نيش زدن 'to sting'; حشپ زی 'to wink'; 'to make a hole, to burrow'; (to put (clap) the hand’ (on, بی, 'to pitch a tent'; نعل زدن 'to put a shoe (on, بر), to shoe'; ( make a night-attack' (on) ; خم زدن 'to cause (a balance, or the like) to incline to one side'; (to exercise oneself, to practise';
 'to drive the quill, to write'; شیعله زدن 'to break into flame, to blaze up'; حرفـ زدن 'to speak, to talk'; لاف زدس 'to vaunt, to brag'; زدن 'أى 'to give an opinion'; or , بارز زدن, 'to call out'.
(9) كشيدن to draw, to take, to suffer, to experience, to undergo', \&c. ; رن رك كشيدن 'to suffer vexation or trouble, to be troubled', \&c.; لامت كشيدن 'to suffer reproach'; انتظار كثيدن 'to be in anxious
 take revenge (from, $\left.j^{\prime}\right)$, to be revenged (on)';
 tory or rebellious' ; طول كثشيدن 'to be long or protracted'.
 (ألفت كرفتن ' ' to take a liking or fancy (to, ب), to become attached (to), or familiar' (with) ; حِساب 'رفتن 'to take into account, to make account (of, $j)$, to hold of importance'; سبقت 'to take precedence' (of, or over, بر) ; قرارَ, 'to take fixity, to be, or become, firmly fixed or established, to be set or bent (on, بر) , to be or remain
 (derive) advantage, benefit, or profit' (from, ا'); عَيبر ' on the faults or defects (of), to find fault (with), to carp at'; ; 'to remove the heart (from, ${ }^{\prime}$ ), to be sick or tired (of)'; ' 'to wrestle'. Also with any infinitive forms inceptives.
(11) 'to get, to obtain, to gain, to find', \&c.; e.g. يافتر ' تربيت يافتن or 'to receive education or training, \&c., to be fostered
 knowledge' (of, بر) ; تصهيم يافتتن 'to be definitely decided (in, بر), to be firmly fixed (on)'; تمهيد يافتن 'to become established, to be laid
 obtain deliverance'; جراحت يافتس. 'to be wounded'.

After the same analogy there are numerous other compounds, as عواستر 'to wish (seek) to be excused'; عذر نهادن 'to put in an excuse (for), to excuse'; بنـا نهادن 'to build (upon, بر), to base' (apon), \&c. These, however, stand isolated, and belong rather to the lexicon. They are phrases rather than compound verbs.
(b) Noun in Combination with an Intransitive Verb
§101. The verbs that commonly occur in these compounds are ( or one of its synonyms شدن , آمدن , or , and .افتادن
(1) 'Fرديدن, these verbs for the transitive verb in the compounds of $\S 98$, the corresponding intransitive, or passive compound (as the case may be) will be obtained; e.g. تأخ 'رديدن or 'to become bitter';
 become satisfied'; مبذول شدن 'to be or become disbursed', \&c.; and so on.
(2) (2) 'to come'; e.g. 'pity to come (to, 1,), to feel pity' (for, ب.); ;
 become present'; حاصِل آمدن 'to be obtained', \&c.; قبول آمدرى 'to be or become accepted, to prove acceptable"; بֶسنديدر To To to be or become approved '; كرد8 آمدن 'to be accomplished',
 'to be watching or waiting (for, 又土)), to be expecting'.-بودن usually differs from شدن, in that it denotes a pre-existing, or a continuous or permanent state or act ; whereas شدن 'to become' denotes an inchoate state or act, or the entering upon a state, \&c.; e.g. بيهار شد 'he became (fell) ill'; but بيهار بود 'he was ill'.
(4) افتانادن 'to fall, to lie, to befall, to happen, to arise', \&c.; e.g. ( occasion to arise (for, 1), to chance, agreement to take
 (to chance to be) agreeable' (to, 1,). Uftādan often occurs in the sense of شدن with the idea of chance or contingency implied; as 'to be heard'; دور افتتادن 'to become separated ’.

Note that, as in the transitive compounds, so in the intransitive, the noun may be separated from the verb by adjuncts; as بِبنا كارها

هر 'he should base bis actions on truth and moderation'. Also, in verse, the noun may, if necessary, come after


§ 102. An intransitive verb, too, may be annexed to a noun in an oblique case, with the governing preposition expressed or understood; e.g. در 'to come into being, to be accomplished or effected'; بـِّنما رسيدن 'to attain to completion, to be completed';
 or or 'to come to the head or top, to surpass'; در افوراء افتادن ' 'to be in all mouths (or on all tongues), to be generally reported ', \&c.

## Particles (حرون $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ )

§ 103. Under the head of particles are included prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions, and interjections.

## A. Prepositions (روإِبِ كلمى )

§ 104. The prepositions may be conveniently divided into-
a) Prepositions, properly so-called, i.e. particles which, either separately or attached, stand before the noun they govern, and do not take the izäfat, or, in other words, do not govern the following noun in the genitive.
b) Nominal prepositions, i.e. (a) derivatives from primitive adverbs (originally nouns); and (b) nouns constructed during the modern Persian period analogously to those derivatives. These are all put in the construct state with a following noun; while the preposition which governs them is either expressed or understood. Many, if not most, of these nouns are also employed as adverbs.

## a) Proper Prepositions (>رونِ جازّ)

§ 105. The prepositions, properly so-called, are-
a. $j^{11}$ or $\underset{\sim}{ }$ ' from, out of, of (gen. and partitive), on account of, with, by'.
b.,$\left.\dot{L}\right|^{2}$, (abridged) $\mathrm{J}^{\prime}$ 'in ' (applicable to both rest and motion).
c. $6, ~(o l d)$ ) $!1^{3}$ 'with, along with, in possession (or possessed) of, to '. It sometimes takes the secondary form g ; and, in the Shāhnāma, is now and then replaced by $;$. ${ }^{\text {. }}$
${ }^{1}$ O.P. hachā. ${ }^{1}$ Phl. andar; O.P. antar. ${ }^{3}$ Pāzend awō̄k. ${ }^{4}$ Abridged from old $j!\mid=$ Phl. $a b \bar{a} z=0 . P$. apāch $(a p a+a c h)$.
d. J., (old) ب! ${ }^{11}$ 'on, upon'.
e. بَنْابر (formed after the Ar. بِبـرً على ) 'because of, on account of'.
f. $\mathrm{Y}^{-2}$, (insep.) 5 , and (before pron. with an initial vowel, $v . § 57$, Note 2), بد ${ }^{2}$ 'to, in, on, at, for, by the help of, by means of, by'. At the present time is pronounced $b i$.
 postposition $\mid$, often has the sense of $\mathbf{N}$.
 in this sense.)
i. $\mathrm{L}^{5}$ 'to, up to, till'. It is often followed by a redundant 8. ; as x บ. تا 'up to'.
j. $j \div$ 'except, without'; also $; \underset{j}{ }$. idem. It is often followed by; ; as $;$ is $\underline{y}^{\prime}$; and that of $;$; is $;$
k. sj 'towards, to' (it is not met with after Sa'di's time).

1. $1 . \mathrm{o}^{7}$ ' towards, to, up to' (only used to form compound verbs).
m. هر 'except' $(=j \times)$. See the adv. magar.

Rem. Arabic prepositions, such as علال 'upon', \&c., also occur in Persian before Arabic nouns. For these, see the Arabic section.

## b) Nominal Prepositions

§106. In the following list of the principal nominal prepositions the older forms are first noticed. Included in the list are a few which are properly compound prepositions; and also some Arabic prepositions in common use.
I. a. دورن (orig. 'interior') 'in the interior (of), within,
 (within) the house'; xij
b. بِّ, (orig. 'exterior') 'outside (of), without'; e.g. (outside the house'; also with ${ }^{s}$ and ; prefixed.
c. ${ }^{6}$ ' ${ }^{10}$ ' at the back (of), behind, after'; as the

[^7]${ }^{10}$ Phl. pas = O.P. pasã.

 'after many days'. In this usage, the Ar. dec may take its place. Synonymous with چسس is the word

 (also with 8, or or ,سپ , is usually followed by the genitive ; ; e.g. پیش ازان 'before that, previous to that'. In this construction, its Ar. synonym is
 prefixed.
 and $;$ prefixed.
 ,از زير ,در زير , according as position or motion to or from is meant.


Note that in the older poetry a noun is often found both preceded and followed by a preposition ; the one which follows (usually $د$ or بر) generally determining the meaning of the first (usually 8 ) ; e.g.
"اندر شهر =بشهر اندر ' 'in the sea 'within the city'; بر بر بر بسر بر 'on the head'; 'on the mountain';


Not only are the proper prepositions so used, but even one of the nominal prepositions بيرون ,اندرون, may stand in the place of the second; e.g. در اندرونِ باغ = باغ اندرون "within the garden'; 'from without the city'.

The second preposition is regarded as redundant by native grammarians. It is more probably used adverbially with the object of emphasizing the first. Or the construction may be that termed ( أهافيِ مقلوب of در used as to a following noun.
II. a. Ar. باب ('door’, \&c.) : در باب 'in the matter of, in respect of, concerning'; از بابِ 'in consequence of' (از درِ $=$ از

[^8]b. Ar. بִبت ('a head or class of items', \&c.) 'in respect of ( در باب = (), for, on account of'; also بر بابِّ
c. لا (subst. 'height'; adv. 'on top, above '), 'on, upon, above '; as بالای آسمان 'above the heavens'; also از بالاى ,در بالاى ,ببالای.
d. بغش ('part, lot, portion') 'on account of, for': (unclassical; see

f. برابر (بر) ('breast to breast, side by side') 'over against, opposite, in front of, before, at the side of'; also درابر برابر and از برابرِ alif-i-rābita. This alif is called


h. بهر 4 ('part, share, lot') 'for the sake of, for, on account of'; also به 1 idem.

j. ${ }^{\text {. }}{ }^{6}$ ('side') 'to (or on) the side of, to, towards'; also with .از بر,
k. ${ }^{7}$ ('step') 'behind, after, for the sake of'; also ${ }^{\text {r }}$, and


1. vere ('place') : usually with prefixed; as 'in place of, instead of, in lieu of'.
m. Ar. طرف , طانب ('side, direction') 'in the direction of, towards,

n. Ar. © ('direction, way') 'by way of, for the sake of, for, on


o. Ar. حق ('right, due', \&c.): with $ر$ prefixed; as $ر$ حق 'in respect of, in the matter of, concerning '.


 according to '.

[^9] 'in accordance with'.
t. m $^{2}$ ('head, top') : with بر prefixed ; as بر سر 'upon'; and with j; e.g. از ' 'by way of’.

1. m $^{\frac{3}{3}}$ ('side, direction') 'in the direction of, towards, to'; also


w. قْبل (adv. n. of time), followed by the gen. از ; as ; قبل از 'before'

x. $2,5^{4}$ ('circumference') 'around, round about'; also
 انير ميانِ


## B. Adverbs

§ 107. Adverbs may be divided, according to their signification, into the following classes:-

## I. Adverbs of Affirmation, Negation, and Doubt

(a) Of Affirmation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ज }{ }^{\top}{ }^{\top} \text { 'yes, certainly'. } \\
& \text { Ar. البّة ' decidedly, certainly'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## (b) Of Negation

$\mathrm{N}^{1}$ (insep.) $\bar{j}$ (Coll. used for si with inf. and part.) ; so ${ }^{-11}$ (insep.) -o 'not' (with the imperative and precative).
(c) Of Doubt


[^10]Ar. غالبا 'probably'.
, ${ }^{1}{ }^{\prime \prime}$ perchance, perhaps'.

Ar. 'يُهـكن 'possibly, perhaps' (lit. (it is possible '). Ar. مُهُ 'possibly' (lit. 'possible').

## II. Adverbs of Comparison, Manner, and Degree

§ 108. The adverbs of manner are innumerable. Every adjective, and most substantives when preceded by the prep. x., may be used as such. Arabic nouns in the accusative (ending in $1=$, -the tanwin, however, is not usually pronounced, except in India) are also frequently so employed. The following are a few of the most noteworthy adverbs of this class:-
 (obsolete).
ن ${ }^{\text {T }}$ ' in that manner' ( $=$ آذون ( $)$.

أَسِست 'slowly, gently, softly'. "إِّفاقا 'by chance'.
ازدل و جان 'willingly, gladly' (lit. 'with heart and soul').
Ar. 'in truth, truly, really'.
 thus': (antiquated).


Ar. لُ لُ لُ 'in the totality, totally, x


بغايت ' to the extreme, extremely'.
(بمثابٌا 'to such a degree, in

8د.-3 ' on foot'.
ن $\bar{K}_{\vec{v}}$ ' 'in what manner ? how ?'

- $\operatorname{un}^{10}$ 'in that manner, so'. $\left.\begin{array}{c}0 \overbrace{v}^{10} \\ y \stackrel{0}{v}\end{array}\right\}$ 'how? like, as'.
Ar. حجِّ 'truly, verily' (v. § 177).
خوب 'beautifully, finely, well '.
 from end to end, (hroughout, out and out, altogether '.
${ }^{1} v$. conj. magar. ${ }^{2}$ Formed from $\bar{a} n$-dūn. $\quad{ }^{3}$ Formed after analogy of $\bar{e} d u n(\bar{a} n=\bar{e})$. Phl. $\bar{\alpha} s \bar{a} n(\bar{\imath} h)=$ prim. $\bar{a}+\operatorname{svan}($ Z. spen $) . \quad$ ह $\bar{e} d=$ Z. aita (v. §63) + suff. $\bar{u} n=$ prim. aōna, avana. $\quad{ }^{6}$ Prep. $b \bar{a}$ or $b a$, q.v. + ham $=$

Phl. ham = O.P. hama (cf. S. sama). Phl. guinate, fr. Z. gaona 'colour'.
${ }^{9}$ Interrog. chi + Phl. gūn $=$ Z. gaona. chunān $=$ chūn + demonstr. pron. $\bar{a} n$.
${ }_{7}$ Prep. bad (v. s.v. $b a$ ) + pron. $\bar{i} n+$

- Prim. padत̄ti $+k \alpha$ (pada + $\bar{a} t i$ ' going'). ${ }^{10}$ Chūn is contracted from chi-gūn:
${ }^{11}$ Phl. khvap $=$ Z. hvăpah (cf. S. srapas). $\quad{ }^{12} \mathrm{Phl}$. dushkhvār $(=$ dush 'not' + khvär ' easy') $=$ Z. dush-hväthra.

ا，＇fortuitously，by chance＇．
Ar．｜قصدا＇intentionally＇．
ضْ ©＇merely，purely，only＇． ${ }^{\text {UTJ }}{ }^{2}$＇unexpectedly，sud－ denly＇．

Ar． $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{S}}$＇to the utmost de－ gree，exceedingly＇．
's 'very' (lit. ＇good＇）．
 ＇by every law or rule＇）． م㐌＇even，also＇．
نهை U隹

Adverbs of comparison and manner are also occasionally formed by
 in a few cases，by adding the suffixes $\mathrm{ol}^{-}$，and lo；e．g． إِّفاقانـهـ＇unanimously＇．
شاهانه＇like a king，royally＇．
（مردانراه（in a manly manner，like

．＇like one beside himself＇． اؤر r，j＂；‘like an atom＇．

Note．Adverbs with the terminations $u^{-}$and lo are more numerous in the classes which follow，especially in adverbs of time．

## III．Adverbs of Quantity and Number

＂افَزون＂＇much，in excess＇．
．${ }^{7}$＇enough，much，very’．
（Coll．（خَّلى＇＇much，very＇．
بكشرت＇in abandance＇．
بيش＇more＇．
＂تنها＇alone＇．
小in＇how much ？，how long ？＇

لing g＇twice as much，twofold＇．
＂thrice as much，three－ fold＇．
$\int^{10}$ ‘little，not at all＇．
S＇very little，seldom， rarely＇．

## IV．Adverbs of Time

§ 109．The Adverbs of Time may be divided into three classes： 10 Proper Adverbs； 20 Simple Locutions，i．e．Nouns with or without adjuncts； $3^{\circ}$ Compound Locutions．

[^11] O．P．kamna．

1) Proper Adverbs
' ${ }^{\text {'1 }}$ ' 'now'.
$\operatorname{li}^{2}$ (for (با
 (paran-düsh 'yesternight').
(ر) ${ }^{4}$ ' 'anterior, the day before yesterday' (= =ری; ; "the year before last').

(for لیّ (fun)' the year before last'; (for $j g$ ) 'the day before yesterday."
ms 'behind, after'.
"
شوش ${ }^{6}$ 'last night' (lit. 'tonight').
(ง ${ }^{7}$ ) 'yester-, yesterday' (also
(ديئه ( Ac 'yester-night, last night').
 'the day after tomorrow ').
So 'when ?' ( SUi 'till when ?, how long?').

بـنيز ${ }^{10}$ بنيز "again, once more, also'.
; ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{11}$ 'ever', (with following neg.) 'never.'
$8, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{o}^{12}$ (contracted), 8, ho 'always'.男 ${ }^{13}$ 'always'.
$j \mathrm{j}^{\prime}{ }^{14}{ }^{14} j$ 'still, yet', (with neg.) 'not yet.'
2) Simple Locutions

Ar. $\mid \dot{\beta} ا=1$ 'at times'.


Ar. $\left.\underset{j g+!^{15}}{j-15}\right)$ 'today'.
${ }^{\prime} \bar{K}_{j} T^{16}$ 'at that time, then'.

ى. $\mathrm{l}^{17}$ 'once' (lit. 'one time').
${ }^{1}$ Phi, nūn; O.P. $k a$ (rel. or conj. stem) $+n u ̄ n a m$ (cf. S. nūnam; Gr. v仑̂v; Lat. nunc). "O.P. para 'other' (cf. S. para). ${ }^{\text {s O.P. paranam 'ere- }}$ cedently' (cf. S. purana). 'O.P. parvviya 'anterior'; Phi. parer. ${ }^{5}$ Prob. prim. para + yār. ${ }^{6}$ PhI. dōsh = Z. daosha 'tonight'. ${ }^{7}$ Phi. dīk; O.P. dy (cf. S. hyas; Gr. $\chi^{\theta \prime \prime}$; Lat. herr). ${ }^{8}$ Cf. S. parēdyus. ${ }^{\circ}$ Z. kadha; cf. S. kadar. ${ }^{10}$ Pāz. nīz; Phl. nēch; O.P. aniyadāchiy 'somewhere else'. ${ }^{11} \mathrm{Phl}$. hakar-chi $=0 . \mathrm{P}$. hakaramchiy. $\quad{ }^{12}$ ham + vāra ? (see bärē). ${ }^{18} \mathrm{Phl}$. hameshak. ${ }^{14}$ Prob. from a prim, anvach (anu + ache ) 'following after'. Darmesteter suggests the weak form anūch: this would yield the modern hanūz, but not the archaic hanöz. $\quad{ }^{15}$ O.P. ina' this' $+r \bar{u} z=\mathrm{Phl}$, rōch $=0 . \mathrm{P}$. rauchah, rt. much. $\quad{ }^{10} \bar{a} \overline{a n}^{\prime}$ 'that' + gäh $=\mathbf{P h l}$ gas $=0 . \mathrm{P}$. gäthu (cf. S. gätu, ri. $g \bar{a}$ ). $\quad{ }^{17}$ PhI. bār ( = prim. vāra 'time') + plur. suffr. $h \bar{a}: b \bar{a} \bar{n} \bar{\imath}=b \bar{a} r+\bar{\imath}(\bar{e})$ 'one', q.v.

```
\({ }^{3}{ }^{1}\) 'بامدأ \({ }^{1}\) 'in the early morn-
بارمدادان ' ' ing'.
```



```
        \({ }_{8} \boldsymbol{x}_{\mathrm{y}}^{3}\) ' 'at the dawn, in the
        morning '.
    Ar. دايُمهاً 'continually, for ever'.
    دوبار 'twice'.
    'late'.
    " ديرها ' 'for a long time'.
```

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 's 'again, any more. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { زو }{ }^{7} \text { 'quickly. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { شبى 'nightly'. } \\
& \text { x نسا }
\end{aligned}
$$

Ar. مُمام 'perpetually, always'.
3) Compound Locutions

Ar. إلي آلّن 'till now, as yet'.
" ل 'at the present time, just now'.
'after a long time'.
'after this, later on'. هس آنگاه 'thereupon'.
'the day after tomorrow'.
يرين فردا 'three days hence'.
r er to this, formerry'.
مدم 'from moment to moment, every moment'.
gزوزوزر 'day by day, every day'.



Ar. عِئد الوقت 'at the time'.
" عنـقريب 'soon, shortly'.
" فیل فلالـر 'now, immediately'.
 $\left.{ }^{8}=1 / \overline{8}\right\}$ then, occasionally'.病
Ar. (mim-ba'd) 'after this, afterwards, hereafter'.
$\underbrace{\text { د }}$

## V. Adverbs of Place

§ 110. Proper adverbs of place are not numerous. Most of the adverbs of this class are nouns in the locative case, with or without adjuncts. The following are a few examples :-

[^12]KT T1 ' in that place, there'.
اينجبا 'in this place, here'.
(اندرون ${ }^{\text {ا }}$ (دون
ايار (antiquated) 'here'.
بالاّى , بالا 'on high, up, above'.
بدر 'out of doors, without, out'.
برون ,بيرون 'outside, without'.

سی 'behind'.
"بیرامون 'round about'.
" 'far, far off'.
دور , 'g 'down'.

' 'na rn.
'everywhere'.

## C. Conjunctions

§ 111. The following are a few of the most commonly-used conjunctions, simple and compound :-

## 1) Copulative



Note., $u$ is pronounced as though a part of the preceding word in compounds of which the two elements are closely related either by similarity or the reverse; as dijje , j'wife and child'; so lo,$j$ 'male and female'; ${ }^{\text {re }}$, goods and chattels'.

## 2) Disjunctive

xt- - ' neither-nor'.
 or else'.
3) Adversative

Ar. ${ }_{\text {Low }}{ }^{w}$ ' but, as for'.
 nay rather, nay more'. oi 'yet still, nevertheless'.

ولى , وليك ,ليلك (poet.) وليكن, ' but, yet'. Ka ${ }^{8}$ 'but, moreover'.

[^13]4) Conditional
 'and if'.
 not, otherwise, else'.
not, unless'.
${ }^{3}$ else'.

## 5) Concessive

 'although, even if'. withstanding that'.
S, J 'although, though, if

با با بارجوديكه
6) Causal and Conclusive

S 'that, because, for, since '.
 sequence of this, consequently, therefore'.
${ }^{2}$ maj ' 'inasmuch as, whereas'.
ا'
'then, therefore, wherefore'.

冬,
$\square$ 'for, since'.
 'for the reason that, because, since'.
lid li-hāzza 'for this reason, therefore, consequently, hence '.

Note. S' that' is often used in apposition to a sentence forming the subject or object of a verb, or merely to introduce -(1) the apodosis (كلف (ك) (5) or (2) the oration rect (3)
 it often comes into my mind that I should remove to some other clime'; (2) بكَفت 'he said' ('as follows' $=\mathrm{Gr}$. orc).

'Like the good people of humble Shīrāz, I found none: may the mercy (of God) be on that soil'. In poetry, moreover, $\sigma$ frequently occurs in the sense of ${ }_{x}$. 1 'moreover', 'nay rather'.
7) Final
$S^{5}$ 'that, in order that'.
Li, that, to the end that'.

## 8) Temporal

is 'as long as, whilst, till, until'; $\underset{y}{ }$ 'when'; $\delta$ 'when'.
Note. The direct question is sometimes introduced by one of the conjunctions $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{T}$, $\underset{\Sigma}{ }$, or , $\overline{\zeta_{0}}$, used interrogatively.

## D. Interjections

§ 112. Interjections are mostly sounds or cries expressive of emotion, or nouns used in exclamation. They may be divided into the following classes:-

1) Of Calling, or Directing Attention To

 © es 'lo here!, see here!, here!' © ' ' lo there!, see there!'
thee ').
نْ thee').
2) Of Admonition

3) Of Approval, Admiration, or Joy

4) Of Surprise

 how fine!'

ज゚j) bravo!'
5) Of Pain, Sorrow, or Regret
${ }_{\gamma} T^{\prime}$ 'ah!, oh !’
lg, vg, जا, जا,
sly sly, ilo 'woe!, alas!'
Ar. حينا , حيفـ 'O the pity!, alas!' |فسوس ' what a pity!, alas!'
6) Of Aversion, or Contempt

 lect) me!'

## SECTION III. FORMATION OF WORDS COMPOUNDS

§ 113. The Persian language abounds in, and displays a marvellous genius for the formation of, compound words. In the various combinations which it presents, not only may any of the parts of speech (including participles, and the apocopated infinitive used as a verbal noun), be employed, but even verbal forms, such as the present stem, the 3rd sing. of the gnomic present, the and pers. sing. of the imperative and the prohibitive, and the ard pers. sing. of the past tense, may occur as one or other of the members of the compound. As regards the present stem, it may be observed that it is not only often employed as a simple verbal noun (e.g. بیّ 'tie, fastening', from سوز ; بستن 'burning', \&cc., from فـريبب ; سوختّ 'deceit', from فزرِفِفتن) ; but that, as a stem, it lends itself, in compounds, to the expression of almost all relations, active or passive, as will be seen in the examples which follow.
§114. The various kinds of compounds may be classed under four heads, as (A) Appositional ; (B) Copulative ; (C) Definitive; (D) Collective.

## A. Appositional Compounds

These consist of a word repeated, or of two correlated words in apposition, forming Nouns or Adverbs having for the most part an intensive signification; eng.

Nouns. Tآمدشد, Tمرفت 'coming and going', traffic, intercourse.


Adverbs. اندك الدك 'little by little'.


, رفته , 'gradually'.
خندان خندان 'laughing continually'.
In one class of these compounds nouns are formed by using an
imperative in apposition with the prohibitive of the same verb; e.g. (lit. 'hold, do not hold ') 'reconciliation, agreement, compact'; (lit. 'pull, do not pull') 'turmoil, tumult, opposition, struggle, (mental or physical) ; كُشْشُ (lit. 'kill, do not kill') 'hurly-burly'.
N.B. In this class are found certain 'imitative words', see post B (a).

Note. e.g. 8 . خرُد8 'in in pieces'; 'incoherent, kagmag'.

## B. Copulative Compounds

§ 115. In these forms the words are coupled, either by the conjunctive, $(\dot{e} \dot{\varepsilon}-g \mid g)$, or by one of the prepositions the letter alif known as الفـ , e.g.
(a) The Copula is,

Two nouns:-
أكر و ورب 'meat and drink', food.
برك و ساز 'provision and equipment', supplies, provisions.
Two adjectives:-
'wet and dry', everything.
's 'hot and cold', vicissitudes.
Two present stems:-
'twist and turn', anxiety, torture.
'seize and hold', conflict, combat, authority, dominion.
Two perfect stems:-
ش , $\lambda_{0}$ T 'coming and going', intercourse, traffic.
'giving and taking', lending and borrowing, commercial transaction.
, 'talking and listening', conversation.
One present stem and one perfect stem:-
ج, 'seeking', search, scrutiny.
$\left.\xi^{\nu}, 4\right)^{\prime}$ 'talking', conversation.
Of this class are the compounds such as قيل و 'conversation, argument', in which both members of the compound are Arabic preterites, one active, the other passive.

Note. In this class also come certain imitative compounds called
by Persian grammarians الفاطِ إتّباع ‘imitative words', in which a second meaningless element is added commonly rlyming with the first element of the compound; e.g. شيب و تيب 'confused, crazy';
 decoration'.

> (b) The Copula is a Preposition, coupling
(i) Two nouns:-
(دست بدست دست دست دست ( from hand to hand ', successive, successively.

شاخ در شاخ 'branch within branch', various.
(ii) Two adjectives:-

تازو بنازه 'fresh with fresh', fresh and fresh.
نو بنو 'new with new', renewed, new.

برابر 'breast to breast', equal, level.
سراسر 'head to head', completely, altogether.
ؤتر 'running and trotting', harry, bustle.
سرابا 'head to foot', completely.
كابیش 'more or less', more or less.

## C. Definitive Compounds

§116. In these compounds the first element usually defines the second. They form nouns, concrete or abstract, and adjectives. It is convenient to subdivide them into-
(a) Specifying compounds.
(b) Descriptive compounds.
(a) Specifying Definitive Compounds, Nouns and Adjectives
(i) Concrete nouns, compounded of two nouns in the relation of إضافتِ متلوب (inverted izäfat):-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ناهرzُ چֶند 'book of counsel' = يند ناهم }
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) Nouns, concrete or abstract, compounded of a noun followed by a present stem which plays the part of an infinitive verbal noun:بوس 'foot-kissing', homage, service. 'ear-rubbing', punishment, rebuke. gوشناس 'face-recognizing', an acquaintance. 'throne-sitting', a successor.
(يبيغامبر
(iii) Nouns, concrete or abstract, compounded of a noun and a perfect stem (infinitive verbal noun):-

倍 'eye-holding', expectation, hope.
: hand-seizing', plunder, superiority, advantage.
(j) (زر بنت بافت
(iv) Nouns, compounded of a noun and a perfect participle:-

ه شاهزادهر 'born of a Shāh', prince.
جi ' experienced in war', veteran soldier.
جهان ديده 'having seen the world', an experienced person. sد
(v) Nouns, compounded of an adverb, or preposition followed by a present stem, having the force of a verbal noun:-
:بیشکش 'put forward', a present.
زلزبر انداز 'spread under', a carpet (for a hookah).
زبر افخن ' 'cast under', a small rug.
(vi) Adjectives, compounded of a noun or pronoun followed by a present stem. Some of these adjectives are active and some passive in meaning:-
Active. آتش انگی" 'fre-raising'.
"heart-vexing'.
'striking with a sword’.
خيز 'early-rising’.
خود فروشٌ 'self-selling', conceited.
Passive. دست آموز 'hand-taught', tame.
دليّنير 'heart-accepted', pleasant, agreeable.
بالمابير 'desire-attaining', successful.
غ 'sorrow-full', sorrowful,
(vii) Adjectives, compounded of a noun and a perfect participle:-ج- 'tried in war'.
.
دهر دهر 'mouth-torn', abusive.
جهانديدر 'having seen the world', experienced.
(viii) Adjectives (some used as nouns), compounded of an indefinite noun or pronoun, and the prohibitive:-

س كم ' let no one ask', unsaleable, worthless.

ك ' let no one smell it', cast aside, neglected.
مدان 'let him know nothing', ignorant, an ignoramus.
(b) Descriptive Definitive Compounds

In these compounds the first element gives a description of the second, the whole defining the general nature of the compound ; e.g.
(i) Nouns, compounded of two nouns:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 'silver-water', quicksilver. } \\
& \text { ر } \\
& \text { ششر مرغ 'camel-bird', ostrich. } \\
& \text { شير مرد 'lion-man’, hero. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) Nouns, compounded of an adjective followed by a noun :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بَد بُو 'evil smell', stench, foetor. } \\
& \text { خُشكار 'dry year', famine, dearth. } \\
& \text { نيكنام 'good name', fame, celebrity. } \\
& \text { دراز گوم 'long ear', an ass, a hare. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(iii) Nouns, compounded of a prefix with a noun:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { نامشام ' 'evot a man', a coward. name', abuse. }
\end{aligned}
$$

 S. dus, dur or dush, and Gr. $\delta$ v's). The compounds in which it is met are, for the most part, reductions from ancient compounds; as دُشهو 'enemy' (= Phl. dush-man = Z. dush-mainyu 'evil-minded'; cf. S. dush-manyu). The opposite of $d u s h, \& c$., is the Phl. $h u$ or $k h u=$ O.P. $u$, Z. $h u$ (cf. S. $s u$, Gr. $\epsilon \dot{\jmath}$ ) which appears in Persian only in the reduction of ancient forms, and is indistinguishable as a prefix; e.g.
joyous＇（＝Phl．khhurram or hurram ；cf．S．suśrama）．خُرُند＇pleased， satisfied＇（＝Phl．khhursand；Z．hu＋rasand）．هُ بُجْير ，＇pretty＇ （ $=$ Phl．hu－chihr ；Z．hu－chithra ；cf．S．su－chitra）．© ©＇merit＇ （＝Phl．hunar ；cf．Vedic sūnara and S．sundara）．
（iv）Nouns，compounded of an adjective or adverb，followed by a present stem or past participle ：－
．
خوش نويس＇one who writes well＇．
解＇one lately taught＇，a tyro．
．one lately matured＇，a youth．
（v）Adjectives，compounded of an adjective with a following noun or present stem ：－

كُردر＇full of heart＇，courageous．
完 غضب＇full of wrath＇，wrathful．
دراز دست＇long of hand＇，rapacions，oppressive．
تيز ر＇swift of wing＇，swift．
ز ز，ز＇quick to be vexed＇，irritable．
，تيز＇swift to move＇，swift，fleet． كمياب＇hard to find＇，scarce，rare．
（vi）Adjectives，compounded of a substantive followed by an adjec－ tive，or participial adjective ：－

شر＇warm as milk＇，lukewarm．
كو＇high as the hills＇．
آسمان．ناب＇pure as the sky＇．
病

زبان بريده＇having the tongue cut out＇．
سر كران＇heavy of head＇，intoxicated，angry．
سر كَردان＇giddy of head＇，wandering．
坚＇seized in the head＇，suffering from headache．
（vii）Adjectives，compounded of a prefix followed by a noun，verbal noun，or stem ：－

范＇evil－design＇，ill－disposed．
＇evil－nature＇，malignant，wicked．

Note. In this class will fall also compound adjectives formed of an Arabic prefix followed by a noun, as-
ذی هوش 'sensible '; اولو العزم ; 'ambitious'. 'ورح 'alate '
(viii) Adjectives, compounded of a negative prefix and an adjective, noun, present stem, or perfect participle :-

Si كֶا 'not clean', unclean.
نوميد , نا اميد 'hopeless', despairing.
نا دان 'not knowing', ignorant, foolish.
. not chosen', rejected.
Note. In this class will naturally fall compounds with Arabic negative prefix, such as-
. غير مُمكن 'impossible'.
غير هستعهلَ 'disused', not used.
غير مطلوب 'not desired', undesirable.
لا عأقل 'not wise', stupid.
(ix) Adjectives, compounded of two substantives:-

آهو هشم 'gazelle-eyed'.
' mountain-bodied', huge.
" سرو قامت 'cypress-statured'.

. بولاد بازو "steel-armed'.
(x) Adjectives, compounded of a preposition followed by a substantive :-


```
        ! با 'faithful'.
            !\mp@code{*N 'shameless'.}
    بر قرار 'firm', solid.
```


(xi) Adjectives compounded of a noun followed by a second noun in construction with a preposition:-

> , با بزُكْير 'having the feet in chains'.
> خlil 'carrying the house on the back', nomad.
> سر بُمْر 'sealed'.
> سر سر بر 'obedient', submissive.

## D. Collective Compounds

§117. These are nouns, compounded of a numeral followed by a substantive :-

در در 'two-knives', shears.

"
شا شش 'six feet', a beetle.

## Derivation of Words

§ 118. Persian has lost many of the affixes of the primitive language; but it has, to a great extent, compensated for this by making a more extensive use of those which it has preserved, and by forming new suffixes, by combination of some of the old; or by reducing to suffixes independent nouns which, in the primitive language, were employed as last members of compounds. These may be termed nominal suffixes, to distinguish them from the former, or primitive suffixes.

> a) Primitive Suffixes
> 1) $(-\bar{a} \quad(\mathrm{Phl} .-\bar{a} k)$
§ 119. Verbal Adjectives. This suffix is generally regarded as forming imperfect participles ( $v . \S 77$ ); but the words formed by it are really verbal adjectives, many of which are also employed as substantives; as lils 'a learned man, a sage' ( $=$ Phl. dān $n-\bar{a} k$ ). Some of them, indeed, do not admit of the participial sense, but occur as simple adjectives ; e.g. चָَيدا 'manifest' ( $=\mathrm{Phl}$. padtāk, for patdāk,
 $t u k h s h \bar{h} k)$.

Abstract Substantives. The same suffix added to some adjectives forms abstract substantives; e.g. Lof, 'width' (from نیֶ 'broad');

 سرما 'cold' (= Phl. sarmāk).

Rem. The final $1-$ of these forms is sometimes replaced by $8-a$; as (يارا (or ) يار (

$$
\text { 2) } \leftrightarrow(-\bar{a} k \text { (Phl. }-\bar{a} k)
$$

Abstract Substantives. This suffix is the unreduced Phl. $-\bar{a} k$ of the preceding. It is added- $\alpha$ ) to the present stems of verbs, to form abstract substantives ; and $\beta$ ) to a few substantives, to form adjectives; e.g.



 a dolt, a fool' (from ceं 'an idol').

In the word © 0 or the suffix does not alter the sense of the stem; e.g. 'كان 'o 'hole, pit', from 'hole, depth' (= Z. magha).

$$
\text { 3) } \mathrm{J}--\bar{a} l \text { (origin uncertain) }
$$

This suffix is annexed to substantives without changing their signification; e.g.
دنی
4) 4- $^{-1}-\bar{a} n$

This suffix is derived from two distinct sources, and employed for different formations; as-
a) $\overline{\mathbf{A}} \mathbf{N}$ : Forming Plurals and Adverbs. $\quad 1 \quad 1$ ( $=$ O.P. $-\bar{a} n \bar{a} m$, the ending of the genitive plural of bases in $a$ ), which forms-
a. The plural of nouns; $v . \S 19$, and Rem.
$\beta$. Adverbs, from substantives ; e.g. بامدادان 'in the morning' (from بامداد 'morning'; Phl. bāmdāt ; Z. bāma+tāt (as in ameretāt); S. bhāma +tā-ti 'brightness'; cf. Vedic devatāti 'divinity'); بهاران. 'in the spring' (from ${ }^{\prime}$ به 'spring').
b) Participles and Adjectives. $\quad 1--\bar{a} n(=$ Phl. $-\bar{a} n=$ O.P. -āna: cf. S. -āna), forming-
a. Imperfect participles; $v . \S 77$.
$\beta$. Adjectives from nouns; as- جانان ('beloved, dear') 'dear one, love, sweetheart' (from جان 'soul'); جاويدان 'eternal, perpetual '(from جاويد 'eternal'); نِبازان 'needy' (from نياز 'need ').

To this place also belong the nouns- 'يشيان' the most forward or prominent part, beginning, entrance' (from يِش ; from derived the abstract substantive كیشانى ) ; كوهان 'hump, bunch (of a camel), a riding-saddle ' (from or 'hill').
c) $\mathrm{l}^{-}-\bar{a} n(=$ Phl. $-\bar{a} n=$ O.P. and Z. $-\bar{a} n a$ or $-\bar{a} n i)$, forming-
 'Ardashīr, son of Bābak'); قاربِ كا, 'Qāran, of the family of K̄āva'.
$\beta$. Names of Places. Names of countries or places; e.g. بيابـ 'waste, desert' (= Phl. viyāp-ān); توران 'the Tūrānian country' (from Tūr) ; إسباهاهن ,سیاهان. ('military station') 'Ispahān' (from سباء).

Note that the ending $-\bar{a} n$, in some words, results from the lengthening of the vowel of the O.P. affix -an; as جوان 'young man' = Z. yavan.

Rem. The suffix c), $\mathbf{u}^{\text {-二, }}$, is purely adjectival and is generally confounded with the preceding suffix.

$$
\text { 5) } \mathrm{j} 1--\bar{a} n a(\mathrm{Ph} l .-\bar{a} n a k \text {, from O.P. }-\bar{a} n a)
$$

Adjective of Possession and Adverbs. The Phl. suffix is derived from the O.P. $\bar{a} n a$, by substitution of the primitive affix $-a k a$ ( $\mathrm{Ph} . a k$ ) for $a$ (a change which is very common in Phl.). Persian reduces the Phl. -anak to -āna. This suffix is annexed to nouns to form adjectives
 دوستاز دوست 'friendly, affectionately' (fromd'); ، دوراز 'possessed with a devil, mad' (from ديو 'an evil spirit'); شاهان 'royal, magnificent, royally' (from $\quad$ r $ش$ ' $\mathrm{king}^{\prime}$ ); 'behaving like a lover, amorously' (from عاشق 'lover'); 'نردان 'like a man', 'manly'.

Note. Abstract substantives with the ending - $\bar{a} n \bar{\imath}$ are not formed from adjectives in $-\bar{a} n a$, but from adjectives ending in $-\bar{a} n$; as 'forehead, brow', from يָیشان , v. 4), b), $\beta$. In some cases the adjective in $-\bar{\alpha} n$ is lost; but the abstract substantive formed from it is still
家 'reward to a bringer of good news' (from *

$$
\text { 6) } \gamma--a(\mathrm{Phl},-a k=\text { O.P. }-a k a \text { : cf. S. }-a k a)
$$

This suffix is of very extensive application. In many primitive words which have not a base in -aka (but simply one in $-a$ ), the Phl. substitutes $-a k a$ for $-a$; and in many cases the Phl. form in $-a k$ (whence the Persian -a), exists side by side with the primitive form in $-a$; e.g.
 O.P. kām-aka); كده 'house' (Phl. kat and katah; Z. kata); كين Sand 'vengeance', \&c. (Phl. kēn and kēnak; Z. kaēna. The change of the Phl. ē to $\bar{\imath}$ was made in Pāzend); نيـر 'half' (Phl. nēm and nēmak; Z. naema-: cf. S. nēma-).

The suffix 8 - $-a$ is annexed-(1) to nouns and the present stems of verbs; (2) to nouns of time, and to compounds of which the first member is a numeral, or the distributive $ه$.
(1) Nouns. In the first case, it serves to form substantives ex-
 hand with the five fingers' (from 'five'); $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{\nabla}}^{\mathrm{v}}$ 'left-handed' (from
 'handle, haft, handful' (from دست 'hand'); دندان 'tooth of a saw' (from درزر 'tooth') ' دندان 'relating to the day ( $ز$ ), daily allowance,
fast' (so called because Muhammadans fast in the day, and not in the night); كوه 'hump, bunch' (from 'hill'); \% هو 'أُ 'razor' (from استر الستردن 'to shave'); pres. stem of ' 'laughing, laughter'
 from شبر

Note. Diminutives. In a few cases this suffix, annexed to substantives, forms diminutives; but for such formations the unreduced Phl. suffix $-a k(v .7))$ is more commonly employed; e.g. $ر$. 'رُ ' little daughter, little girl' (from دختر 'daughter'); مردهر 'manikin, con-

(2) Adjeotives. In the second case the suffix forms adjectives; e.g. دو روزغ 'of two days' (from دور 'two' 'day'); © 'of
 دورو 'sufficient for five men', \&c. (from مرد ${ }^{\text {+ }}$ ).

Diminutives. These suffixes are added to nouns to form diminutives.
a) $\left(\begin{array}{c}-a k \text {. This is the Phl. suffix }-a k \text {, noticed in the preceding }\end{array}\right.$ paragraph. It is applicable to both animate and inanimate objects, and may also be annexed to adjectives; e.g. . اس 'a little horse, a pony' (from اسب 'horse '); اندك 'little' (from 'as much ', \&c.);
 lad, child' (Phl. kṻtak; Z. kutaka 'little'; cf. S. kshudraka); مردك ' 'manikin' (from مرد); شيرينـرين 'sweetish' (from 'sweet', from



Rem. In recent times the ending $-\overline{2} k$ is also used; e.g. بنـديك 'a little slave' (from بـبد 'slave'), but this is uncommon.
 forms is derived from a primitive affix -ach, meaning 'tending (to), approaching' (cf. S. svityach 'approaching whiteness, whitish', from Sviti 'whiteness'). The Phl. kanīch- (Persian ${ }^{j}$ Skanīz) ' young girl, maiden' (Z. kany $a+a c h$ ), may be taken as the type of such diminutive forms, and may account for the initial $\bar{\imath}$ of the suffixes. To the suffix $-\bar{i} c h$ thus obtained the Phl. superadds the suffix $-a k$, thus forming $\bar{i} c h a k$, whence the Persian $-\bar{\imath} c h a,-\bar{\imath} j a,-\bar{i} z a$, $-\bar{i} z h a$. Again, by detaching the initial $\bar{\imath}$ of $-\bar{c} c h a$, Persian forms the suffix -cha. The forms -cha, $-\bar{i} c h a,-\bar{j} j a$, are applicable to inanimate objects only ; -īza and -izhha, to both animate and inanimate objects; e.g. $8 \times$ ' ' a little
garden' (from باغ 'garden'); small pot or cauldron' (from

 'red'); ; 'a small (leathern) water-bag' (from مشر).
 $-a k$ is preserved.
$\gamma) ;$-. The origin of this suffix is obscure. It is added to nouns denoting rational beings, with a familiar or jocular meaning; e.g. . pisarü̈ 'little boy' (from دسر 'son '); دختر ' دختر 'little daughter, little girl' (from دُختر) ; شيخر 'a little old man' (from).
8) (Phl. -akān)

Nouns of Relation, \&c. From the same Phl. suffix $-a k+$ the adjectival suffix $-\bar{a} n$ (O.P. -āna; v. 4), b)), is derived the Persian suffix - ( $a$ )gãn, the initial $a$ of which is dropped. It serves to form distributives ( $v . \S 52$ ), and nouns which indicate relation, similitude,


 8دِ 'a village '); (for on the road)', 'anything obtained gratis, a worthless thing'; شانیان (for شاشانان 'worthy of a king, \&c., royal'), 'a thing worthy of a king', \&c. ; نر ك, through Phl. vartak $+\bar{a} n$; O.P. vart-; cf. S. varta-, vrtta) ; تَ ترَ 'pledge, pawn, stake' (= Phl. giravak-ān).

From the suffix sulk, which is used to form distributives and multiplicatives; v. §§ 52 and 53 .

Adjective of Possession. From the Phl. suffix $-a k+$ the suffix $-\bar{i} n$ (v. 17.)), is derived the suffix -(a)gin, which is reduced in Persian to گی. It serves to form adjectives indicating the possession of the quality expressed by the substantive to which it is annexed; as




Abstract Substantives. These suffixes are added to the present stems of verbs to form abstract substantives or nomina actionis. The full Phl. form ش~~ occurs in the older poets; but in the classical language this is generally reduced to $\mathcal{M}_{\boldsymbol{\sim}}$, or sometimes converted




 'deed, action, work' (from S, pres. stem of كJS).

The same suffixes are found in the words 'retribution', in which $b$ is a prefix = Phl. pāt = O.P. pati; and . J is the reduction of the Phl. dahishn, from dah, the pres. stem of dātan, the Persian دادن. The prefix pāt means 'back', 'again'.

Rem. The Phl. ishn is, no doubt, as Darmesteter ${ }^{1}$ points out, derived from the O.P., although no such affix is found in O.P. texts. It is said to be absolutely unknown in Zend. The Vedic Sanskrit equivalent is the affix -ishnu, which however has always an active sense.

Note. The Persian suffix -ish must not be confounded with the O.P. affix -ish, which forms primary substantives.

Abstract Substantives. Added to adjectives, it forms abstract
 tight'); تيززنا 'sharpness' (of a sword, or the like; from 'length' (from دراز 'long'); :فراخنا 'width, spaciousness, roominess' (from ${ }^{\text {; }}$ 'wide').

Rem. This suffix is supposed by Darmesteter to have originated in the Phl. period by false analogy with the ending -n $\bar{a}$ of pahna 'breadth' (v. § 133, 1); Phl. pahnāi, and pahnāk (from pahan; Z. pathana).

$$
\text { 12) } \varsigma-(P h l,-\bar{\imath} h: \text { cf. Gr. } \iota \alpha \text {; Lat. } i a)
$$

Abstract Substantives. A suffix of very common occurrence. It serves to form abstract substantives from substantives, adjectives, pronouns, participles-in short, from all kinds of words, simple or


[^14]'how ?'); خوبى 'beauty, excellence' (from خوب); دزدى 'stealing, theft' (from دزد 'thief'); دلازارى 'pain of heart, cruelty' (from دلازار ' 'heart-tormenting'); دوربينى 'the quality of seeing far off, foresight'


 or astray' (from مشغولى 'the being busy or occupied' (from Ar. مشغول 'occupied'); منى 'egoism' (from منى 'I'); نيستى 'the not-being, non-existence, ruin, loss' (from (is not'); نيست '
 (from هنر يرور). This suffix is called in Persian يأى مصَدَدى .
$$
\text { 13) } v=\text { (Phl. }-\bar{\imath} k \text {; O.P. and Z. }-y a \text {; S. }-y a,-\bar{\imath} y a \text {; cf. Ar. }-\bar{\imath} y a)
$$

Adjective of Relation. A suffix of very common use. It is added to nouns to form adjectives of relation, origin, \&c., and is called
 ايزديى ; اليران 'divine, godlike' (from 'god'); 'warlike'
 'bloodthirsty, sanguinary' (from خون 'blood ': خونى 'blood-stained', is E contraction of خونين); شيرازی ' of Shīrāz, a native (or an inhabitant) of Shir raz'; ( $\mathcal{G}$ ger 'of Ganja, born in Ganja, a native of Ganja'.

The same suffix, added to infinitives, forms the verbal adjective in v; $v$. § 80 .

$$
\text { 14) } \varsigma-\bar{\imath} \text { (archaic } \bar{e}=\text { Phl. } \bar{e}, \bar{e} v=\text { O.P. aiva) }
$$

The $v$ of Unity, \&cc. This is properly a word, and not a suffix. It is called 'the $\mathcal{G}$ of unity or indefiniteness', and corresponds to our indefinite article. For examples of its use, v. § 36 .
15) $ى-\bar{\imath}$ (archaic $\bar{e}=$ Phl. $\bar{e}, \bar{e} t=$ O.P. aita; cf. S. $\bar{e} t a d$ )

The Demonstrative s. This is, in reality, a suffixed demonstrative pronoun, meaning 'that, the' (i.q. آن ). For examples of its use,

16) $ى-\bar{\imath}$ (archaic $\bar{e}=$ O.P. hadha, prob. reduced to (h)ai)

The final $\mathcal{v}$ of the Past Continuous, \&e. Like the preceding, this $\checkmark-$ also is a suffixed word, meaning 'continually, always'. It is added to some of the persons of the past tense to form the past continuous, the conditional, \&c. (v. § 82). [This is, in all probability, the origin of the emphatic particle ${ }^{\sigma}$ used in modern Persian colloquial before a continuous imperative ; e.g. hai bilchwân.]
17) $\because$-_, (Phl. -inn, -innak; O.P. aina; Z. aēna)

Adjective of the Material, \&e. The signification of these suffixes is generally - 'made of, composed of, of'; whence it often passes to the abstract idea of 'full of, of, or pertaining to' (cf. S. maya). They are annexed to nouns to form adjectives. The second (-ina) also forms substantives; e.g. (آ ( Tmade of iron, iron') (from (iron');
 'wrathful, angry' (from خـشم 'anger'); دوثيـن: دوثيس 'last night's' (from دوش ' دور 'last night'); ديربنه 'very old '(from 'late', \&c.);


 (from نتر. ${ }^{\text {( }}$ ).

Examples of substantives are——



The suffix $u=$ - is also employed to form superlatives, \&c., $v$. §§ 40 and 43 :- آخريّ ; 'posterior, hindermost' last'.
18) دار د (Phl. -tār = O.P. and Z. -tar; cf. S. -tar-, -ts)

Added to the verb-stem this suffix forms-(a) Nomina Actoris; (b) Nomina Patientis; (c) Nomina Actionis. The use of the form $-t \bar{a} r$ or -dür depends on the last letter of the stem (v. §73); e.g.
(a) Nomina Actoris. خريدار ' ${ }^{\prime}$ purchaser' (from kharī-dan, خريدن);
 (Phl. dātār = Z. dātar, rt. dā; cf. S. dhātar-, dhātr, rt. dhā);


 caught,-a captive' (from
(c) Nomina Actionis. خواستـار 'petition, search, quest'; ديدار 'sight, vision, view' (from كِردار ; كديدن' way or manner of acting, way,

19) a. . . (older) ) (archaic -ōmand; Pll.-mand,-ōmand; Z. mañt ; cf. S. mat).


[^15] -vāra; cf. S. -bhara, rt. bhr).
 S. dhātar-, dhātr, rt. dhā).

є. $ن$ (Phl. $-n \bar{a} k$; prob. $-n \bar{a}(v .12))+k)$.
Adjective of Possession, \&c. These suffixes are annexed to nouns to form adjectives of possession; e.g.

 liogُجْ 'fruitful' (from 'fruit'); 'stout, robust, strong' (from ت' 'body').
B.
 خوريشاوند 'related, akin,-a kinsman' (from خوشَ '
$\gamma$. اميدوار 'hopeful' (from 'hope':-Phl. umētvār); ; 'famous'
 'afflicted, sorrowful' (from j) ; ; ${ }^{j}$ (lit. 'hired ') 'a hired labourer,
 perous' (from بكخت); 'برد 'courageous, brave' (from لاور 'heart'). The suffix $\mathrm{gl}^{-}$- is of modern Persian formation.

Note that from, l , is formed a secondary suffix $\quad, \mathrm{l},(=\mathrm{Phl}$. värak $)$, which forms nouns of relation; e.g. گ'ر 'an earring', \&c. (from


ס. بـتخ. 'fortunate' (from بذتيا 'fortune'); بسيار 'much, many' (from بس:-Phl. vasyār; O.P. vasi+*dātar); ('holding sovereignty') 'a king' (from دلير ; دهر) 'bold, brave' (from لد J).

Rem. The suffixes $-y \bar{a} r,-\bar{e} r$, belong properly to the class of nominal suffixes.





Note. suffix 6 with the $\circlearrowleft$ of agency superadded. Hence it conveys the meaning 'a doer of abstract deeds' and becomes adjectival in value.
${ }^{1}$ There does not appear to be any reason why dätar should not be used in a passive as well as an active sense, after the analogy of the suffix $t \bar{a} r ;(v .9)$ ). Some scholars, however, would derive the suftix -yār from the primitive dūra; S. dhāra, rt. dhr.

> وانی ,وان ,وَن (Phl. ūn ?; Z. -aona, prim. -avana ; cf. edūn)

This suffix forms substantives expressing relation or resemblance to the object denoted by the stem; e.g. پֻُوان , پُلون ('bridge-like') 'a raised path round a field’; استروان , سترون ('mule-like') 'a barren woman'; : دستوانه ، 'a bracelet’.

## b) Nominal Suffixes

1) s -bad, or $-b u d$ (Phl. -pat $=$ O.P. -pati 'master, lord';
cf. S. -pati)
§ 120. Nouns designating the Master or Lord. Added to nouns, it forms nouns indicating persons who command, or are masters or lords of, the object denoted by the stem ; e.g. . g . master of ceremonies' (lit. ' master of the court', bār), 'name of a famous musician';

 of the mountains'; from 8 ) ; ; 'chief of the Magi, priest', \&c. $(\mathrm{Ph}$. magupat $=$ O.P. magupati).

## 2) (Phl. -pān, -pānak; O.P. and Z. -pāna 'keeping, protecting'; cf. S. -pāna)

Nouns designating the Protector or Keeper. These suffixes are added to nouns to form nouns indicating the keeper, protector, or guardian, of the object denoted by the stem; e.g. باغبان 'gardener'
 'keeping or preserving shade', (ساي又) 'a canopy, a sunshade, a parasol, the fly of a tent'; شُشر (شُتُرون 'camel-man, camel-driver' (from); (' armour protecting the neck') 'collar' (of a coat, \&c.: Phl. grīv-pān; O.P., Z., and S., grīva + pāna); مرز.ن 'guardian of the frontiers, warden of the marches' (Phl. marz-pān; Z. mereza + pāna;
 (from دستوانه ; دانگشت 'a gauntlet' (from دست).

Note that the suffix never occurs as an independent word in Persian. The word بانو 'lady of the house', is not derived from the primitive pāna, as native writers generally suppose, but from the Phl. $b \bar{a} n u \bar{u} k$, which is formed from $b \bar{a} n(=b \bar{a} m)$, 'roof, house.'
3) , اK, $/ \bar{K}$ (Phl. -kār, -kar, -gar ; O.P. and S. kāra ' work, action;' Z. and S. -kara 'doing', \&c.)
Adjectives and Nouns denoting the Agent or Worker. These suffixes serve to form adjectives and nouns which denote the agent or
doer of an act ; and also a few substantives; e.g. , hurtful' (from زيان ); ; يُتابِار 'acting hastily, making haste' (from
 (
 smith' (from تون 'آهن, 'powerful, rich,-a rich man' (from


Substantives., دستكار ('wrought with the hand') 'hand-work';
 (from ) ياردَار ('that which reminds of') 'a souvenir, a memorial'.
4) (Phl. -dān ; Z. -dāna, ل dāa, 'to place or put'; cf. S. -dhāna, $\sqrt{ } d h \bar{a})$
Nouns indicating the receptacle of a thing. This suffix is annexed to nouns to indicate the place in which the thing denoted by the stem is placed or contained; as n reservoir'; آتشدان 'a hearth, a fireplace' (from جآنشا 'a 'a clothes-

5) بار (Phl. -bār; Z. and S. -pāra 'further side or limit')

Names of Maritime Countries, \&c. This suffix serves to form the names of maritime countries and fluvial tracts; e.g. جوپبار ' fluvial

 'Hindūstān'.
6) $\alpha$. ${ }_{j}$; (Phl. -chār, -jār; O.P. chari (?), rt. char; cf. S. char)
ß. (Phl. -sār, -sar; Z. -sāra, -sara, ' head ').
$\gamma$. uhe (of uncertain origin).
ס. (Phl. -stān; O.P. and Z. -stāna; cf. S. -sthāna).
є. $\quad$ (origin unknown).
そ. $\dot{\chi}$ (origin unknown).
Nouns of Place. These suffixes are annexed to nouns to form nouns indicating places where the things denoted by the stems are found in abundance ; e.g.
a. 1 با ' market' (lit. 'comitii locus'; Phl. bāchār; O.P. abāchari); ij $\mathrm{J}^{\prime}$ 'field of battle' (from 5 'deed, action'); گلزار 'rose-garden'


$\beta$. -sār, Both of these suffixes primarily indicate similitude ( $v . \S 120$,
$\gamma .-s \bar{a} n\} 7)$ ); whence they pass to the designation of places by their character; e.g. , اسخا; 'face, visage, cheek' (lit. 'place of the cheeks'); شاخسار 'a place abounding in branches ( $\dot{\boldsymbol{\chi}}$ ) or foliage, a cluster of trees';
 country having many cities or towns' (from شهر).

ס. -stān, -istān,-sitän.-The first of these forms is used when the stem ends in a vowel ; the second and third, when the stem ends in a consonant; e.g. بوسنأن 'flower-garden'(lit. 'place of perfume', بو) ; , تُركستان 'a sanntry of the Turks' (تركستان ; 'a sandy region or tract, a sandy desert' (from © كوهستان ' 'sand') ; mountainous region or country' (from كوه) ; 'كلستان 'rose-garden' (= ( $=$ '

In a few words the suffix appears to pass from the sense of place to that of time or season; as-بهارستان.'spring' (from بهار) ; تأبستان ') 'summer' ('time or season of heat', تاب).

є. -shan e.g. 'تلشَ'a rose-garden, a flower-garden' (from j);
 'stone ').
7) a.
b. .س. (Phl. -sār, -sar; Z. sāra, sara, 'head, essence').
c. دِس : ديس (Z. daêça 'glance, look, view'; cf. S. dros-).
d. ورار (origin uncertain).
e. (rt. of the verb mann-istan ' to be like').
f. غَو (origin uncertain). ? vakhsha ' form', 'growth'.
g. ورام probably an old substantive denoting 'colour'.

Adjectives and Nouns of Similitude. The above suffixes are added to nouns to form adjectives of similitude; e. g.


b. خاك (' earth-like ') 'humble, vile, mean '; ديوسار ' like a demon'
 like, wolfish ' (from ©رُ 'wolf').

Note that the roord) $\mathrm{l}_{\text {( }}$ (not the suffix) in its original sense of 'head' occurs as last member in not a few compound words; as-, سبكسار
'light-headed, light-witted, light, giddy', \&c.; ; فرسنگار 'milestone'; 'head-downward, headlong'.
c. خايدديس 'mushroom' (lit. 'having the appearance of an egg',
 'having the appearance of an arch or a vault', (طاق).
 grand', \&c. (applicable to persons only).
e. ششيرمان ' lion-like, brave, warlike'.

Note that this suffix is often confounded-(1) with the ending -män, which arises from the Phl. reduction of the ancient manah 'mind, soul', \&c. (S. manas), used as last member of compounds; e.g. نبه 'someone, a certain person, so-and-so' (Z. vohu-mano; S. vasu-manas); پشیهـان 'penitent, sorry' (Pāz. pashēmān; Ph1. pashāmān); شادها 'joyous' (Phl. shāt-mān ; Z. shāto-mano); قهرمان ('having a stout heart) 'a valiant warrior', \&c.
(2) With the ancient word mān 'house' (Phl. mān; Z. nmāna; cf. S. māna) ; e.g. خانهان and خان ومان 'house and home'.

In many Persian words, again, the ending -mann is not a suffix, but the reduction of the primitive affix -man, which forms primary and secondary substantives; e.g. ن. ${ }^{\text {T }}$ 'heaven, sky' (Phl. āsmān; O.P. and Z. asman ; cf. S. aśman) ; ايرمان 'guest' (Phl. ērmān; Z. airyaman; cf. S. aryaman); نرمان 'remedy' (Phl. darmān; O.P. *dar-
 Z. maēthman with Z. maëth-; cf. the Vedic maitra ' friend ').
f. شاهوش , شاهنش 'kingly, royal';

 coloured, black, approaching or resembling black, blackish, swarthy'; مُشكفام 'musk-coloured, black, jetty'.

## SECTION IV. ARABIC FORMATIONS

§121. Arabic words enter very largely into the composition of the vocabulary of Persian. Of the substantives, adjectives, and participles in common use, probably more than half are pure Arabic. But the Arabic words incorporated into the language are subject to the same laws as words originally Persian. The only approach to Arabic construction that occurs is the occasional concord between an Arabic adjective and the substantive which it follows and qualifies $(v . \S 37, c$, et seq.). But, even in this case, the adjective is grammatically connected with the substantive by means of the kasraye tausiif $\bar{i}$, in accordance with the law which obtains in Persian. So far, then, as the study of Persian is concerned, the student need not know more of the grammar of Arabic than the formation of such Arabic words as have become part and parcel of the Persian tongue ; and it is chiefly of such formations that it is proposed to treat in this section. At the same time, however, it must be added, that there are but few Persian authors who do not more or less copiously interlard their compositions, not only with Arabic phrases, but even with whole Arabic sentences; and the student who desires to read and thoroughly understand these will find it necessary to acquire at least an elementary knowledge of the principles of Arabic grammar from some special work on the subject.

## DERIVATIVE WORDS

§122. Arabic words (primitive substantives excepted) may be generally referred to a significant root, consisting, for the most part, of three letters, though roots of four letters are by no means rare. A word derived from a triliteral root will, in its simplest form, consist of the three radical letters alone; as the verb ${ }^{\circ}{ }_{j}$ qutala 'he killed', and its verbal noun ${ }^{\circ}$ (قتل). But the derivatives which are noticed in these pages are mainly those which, in addition to the letters of the root, contain one or more letters of augmentation. These augmentative or servile letters (as they are commonly termed) are $y$ (or $\bar{u}$ ), $t, s, m, n, \bar{u}, \bar{a}$ (or $a$ ), and are comprised in the Arabic word 1 or full'.

Rem. The learner must not imagine that the letters given are used only for the purpose of augmentation. They may at the same time occur as radical letters in an augmented word, and in such a case, only a knowledge of the measure of the word ( $v . \S 127$ ) will enable him to discriminate.

## 1. The Forms of the Triliteral Verb

§ 123. The forms derived from a triliteral verb are usually reckoned fifteen in number, and called the first, second, \&c. derived forms, or (by some writers), the first, second, \&c. conjugations. In this section the first will be distinguished as the first or ground-form, and the rest as the second, third, \&c. derived forms. But, so far as Persian is concerned, it is not necessary for the student to learn more than the verbal nouns of the different forms,-or rather, of the first eight, and the tenth forms, since the others do not occur in Persian.

## A. Nouns Substantive and Adjective

§ 124. In respect of their origin, nouns are divisiblo into primitive and derivative. With the primitive (which are all substantives) we are not concerned here. The derivative nouns may be substantives or adjectives, and are either deverbal, as
 'human' (from 'انسآن. 'a human being'); or departiculative (i. e. derived from particles); e.g. كَبْیْ 'qualitative', and 'quality' (Ar. كيفيّة, from كيفيّة (how ?').

## I. DEVERBAL NOUNS

§ 125. Deverbal nouns may be divided into two principal classes, viz.:
a) Verbal nouns or nomina actionis (infinitives or gerunds).
b) Nomina agentis, and nomina patientis (participles).

§126. The verbal nouns are abstract substantives, which express the action, passion, or state indicated by the corresponding verbs, without any reference to olject, subject, or tine, but they have come to be used also as adjectives. They correspond to our infinitives in -ing. The name sula's (sing. $\operatorname{cin}^{-1}{ }^{-1}$ ' place whence anything originates, source') is applied to these nouns by native grammarians, since they regard the verbal noun as the source from which all derived forms, whether nouns or verbs, originate.

## 1) Verbal Nouns of the First Form

§127. Verbal Nouns from Triliteral Roots. The verbal nouns which may be derived from the first or ground-form of the triliteral verb are about thirty in number. All these nouns cannot, however, be formed from every verb. Most verbs admit of but one form; very few of more than two or three. The simplest form of the verbal noun consists of the three letters of the root; bat in many cases a servile letter (usually an $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{u}$ ) is inserted between the second and third radicals, and sometimes a servile \& (which, in Persian, appears as $\%$ or -) is affixed as well. This occurs chiefly in neuter verbs. The models, or (as they are technically termed) the measures of the five forms most frequently used are given below ; the remaining forms may be learned from the lexicon. In these measures, the letters $i, \varepsilon, J$, of the root ${ }^{\text {leg }}$, are employed to indicate radical letters:-

## Measure Example

1. فَعْل (trans.), قَتْ 'killing' (from فَتْلَ 'he killed').
 stood ').



 4. فَعَالَّ فَعَادَت (intrans.), 'happiness' (from
 rough ').
§ 128. The Masdar-i-Mimi. There is also a class of verbal nouns or nouns of action called os, because they invariably have a servile $m$ for their first letter. The measure of these is, as a general rule, the same as the noun of place or $\operatorname{time}$, ie. ل- ل-

 (from $\bar{J}$, for $\overline{\mathrm{F}} \mathrm{I}^{-1}$ 'he returned').

But they sometimes have kassa instead of fatha in the second syllable, in verbs of which the first of the three radical letters is , and the middle radical of the aorist is pointed with kasra; egg.
 'inheriting' (from ${ }_{0}{ }^{\prime}$, ' 'he inherited ').

In a few other verbs besiles those of which the first radical letter is, the masdar-i-min $\bar{\imath} \bar{u}$ is of the form $ل$


Not unfrequently, however, these verbal nouns take the form

 'blaming, blame' (from ${ }^{\circ}$ " blame, reproach' (from yَ لَّ for ' he blamed').

Note. The infinitives or verbal nouns are used both in an active and a passive sense ; e.g. قْت ' 'killing' (another), or 'the being killed'.
 (from سُر 'he was glad') ; وُجُود 'being, existence' (from وْرو 'it was found, he existed ').

## Note to be carefully studied

Before proceeding to the study of the derived conjugations of the Arabic verb the principle embodied in the following paragraphs, which are taken from Palmer's Arabic Grammar, should be most carefully studied.

## Principle of Permutation

' When a vowel and a weak letter which is not analogous to it come together in a form, the ordinary laws of euphony require that one should yield, and in Arabic the vowel conquers; e.g.

 muykinun are repugnant to the ear, and therefore become on mīzāmun, and
'A permutation of other than weak letters occasionally takes place; as, for instance, when two letters which it is impossible to pronounce together occur in the same form ; then the softer of the two is changed into the corresponding hard one. This can only take place in dental or palatal letters, for they are the only ones in which such a difficulty is likely to arise ; e.g.
'Forming the measure ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$ بَ-i in idltaraba; this, however, would be unpronounceable, and as the soft $t=$ will actually sound like the hard $t b$ the latter is written instead, and the form becomes إْْطَرَبَبَ.

If the principle herein enunciated be carefully borne in mind, the euphonic changes met with hereafter will be easily understood.
2) Augmented Infinitives (مصدر ثلاثى هزيد فيه)
§ 129. The augmented infinitives, or verbal nouns of the derived forms of the strong triliteral verb, are regular in their formation. The measures of these, with examples, are as follows :-
Form of Measure of Preterite Verbal Noun

## Examples

II. ${ }^{\circ}$
 Prev tate 'teaching, instruction' (from عَمْ 'he caused to know', from عَمْمَ 'he knew').
 reminded', from $\bar{\sigma}^{-5}{ }_{j}^{\prime}$ ' he remembered '). تغفرتx tafriqa 'separating, scattering' (from
 a separation' between).
Note. Of the two measures, the first is by far the most common. The second is chiefly used in verbs which have one of the weak consonants $1, g$, or $v$ for the third radical.
 قبل).
قتاتله muqãtala ' 'fighting' (from ' he

مبادلت mujādulat \}'contending, quarrelling'
 tended ').

Note. Of the two measures, the first is more commonly used. If the third radical is, or $\mathcal{G}$ it is changed into I; eng. $\quad$. (for

 -mol 'he did good', rt. حسس).
مْiol itmām 'completing, completion' (from "in 'he completed', from "Ff (for (in) 'it was, or became, complete').

Note. If the first radical is a weak letter, it is changed into the $v$ of prolongation, see Note, p. 149 ante; e.g. إيهان (for in belief' (rt. اليجاد ; اليْ (أوجاد ) 'bringing into existence, creation, invention' (rt. وج̣). If the second radical is, or $\varsigma$ it is elided, and the termination \% (in Persian © or ) is added by way of compensation ;
 a weak letter, it is changed into hamza, which, however, is dropped in Persian, when the noun is not in the status constructus; e.g. $1, \frac{1}{1}$ 'restoring to health, liberating' (rt. برب) ; ; إبْ 'continuance, prolongdion' (rt. بقى). In the construct state these words would take the

Form of Measure of Preterite Verbal Noun
V. ${ }^{j}$

تَ تَعَعْلٌ

## Examples


تَتْ tasavvur 'picturing to oneself' (rt. صور).
Note. If the third radical be one of the weak letters, or $ى$ (the, is changed to $s$, and) the influence of the $\leqslant$ changes the ama of the penult syllable into loasra; eng. (سلَ


Note. If the third radical is , or $\mathcal{v}$, the measure of this form undergoes a similar change to that of the fifth; eeg. تداوِّ 'treating oneself medically' (rt. sos). The Persians frequently change the final ى of such words into 1; as تمّنّا Tamannā 'desire'; 'ثا tamāshā 'spectacle', \&c.


, صإْ inkisār 'being broken, loss of spirit' (rt. $-\bar{\pi}$ ).
Note. If the third radical is one of the weak letters, it is changed into hamza; but the hamza only appears in Persian when the noun is the governing word in the status constructus; e.g. li be in intifa (for



Note. If the first radical is $\because$, the characteristic - of this form unites with it into $\stackrel{\text { ت }}{\sim}$; erg. ع. ع first radical be, or $\mathcal{\varepsilon}$, it is changed into - , which then unites with
 mont' (from gَogov). If the first letter is 1 , it is changed to $v$; as as (for, ( first radical is $د$ or $j$, the characteristic - is changed into 2 , which

 Similarly, if the first radical is $\dot{j}$, the characteristic $\omega$ is changed to $j$, and unites with the radical into in ; as is izzikhär 'storing up' (rt. ذ). -If the first radical is $ص, \dot{\boldsymbol{j}, \text { or } b \text {, the characteristic }}$ ) of the form is changed into $b$, which unites with radical $b$ into $\breve{b}$; e.g.

 third radical is a weal letter, the changes which take place are precisely the same as those which occur in the fourth form under the same circumstances.
Form of Measure of Preterite Verbal Noun

## Examples



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { غ غ غ } \\
& \text { إِمْتْقْْبُال istiqbāl 'going to meet' (a person;- } \\
& \text { rt. قبل). }
\end{aligned}
$$

The changes which occur in the measure of this form are the same as those noticed in the fourth.

## Masdar-i-Mīmī

§ 130. The masdar-i-minm from each of the derived forms of the triliteral verb is of the measure of the noun of time or place of that form (v. § 144); e.g.
III. ل $ل$ Ff

X. ج

Signification of the Derived Forms
§ 131. Inasmuch as the Arabic derived conjugations are only used in Persian in the form of verbal nouns related to the several conjugations, either alone or as a compound verb with a Persian infinitive,
the verbal nouns alone need be studied for practical purposes. But in order to lead to a clear understanding of these forms it is desirable that the student should be shown the method of formation of the various conjugations from the basic form of the verb, which with reference to the tables below will be $I$.

Modes of Formation of the Derived Conjugations

| SERIAL nUMBER OF Derived conjugation | conjugation form | measure of verbal noun | Signification of the CONJGGATton | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MEANING } \\ & \text { OF THE } \\ & \text { BASIC FORM } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| II | This form arises from a doubling the second letter. | = <br> or | Intensifies the meaning of the basic form and makes it, if neuter, transitive. |  |
| Examples |  | تَفْنْرِحِ <br> تنعِيبيم <br> تَّ | Making to be glad. <br> Causing to know, teaching. Causing tostudy. | تَرَ glad. عَ he knew. |
|  |  |  |  |  |

N.B. The second form of the verbal noun of this (II) conjugation results from the suppression of the letter of prolongation $\mathcal{G}$ of and its substitution by kasra, the final $\check{\delta}$ being appended in compensation. The following examples will serve to show this:-

| Examples | فَرْزَتَ قَدّمّم |  | Separating or distinguishing. <br> Putting forward or preferring. | فَّ ated. <br> قَقَم he went in front. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

N.B. If the basic form ends in one of the weak letters $1, g, v$ the


|  | $\underset{\substack{\text { consugation } \\ \text { Form }}}{ }$ | measure or <br> verbal noun | $\underset{\substack{\text { Stantricatron } \\ \text { of the }}}{\text { then }}$ conjugation | $\begin{gathered} \text { MEANING } \\ \text { OF THE } \\ \text { BASTO Form } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| III | فَاءَ <br> By inserting alif between the first and second letters. | 准 <br> or | Conveystheidea of action in relationto another person. |  |
| Examples | قَابَّز <br> قَاتَرَّ <br> $\varepsilon^{\text {ق }}$ <br> سَسَاقْرَ | مُقاقَبَّة <br>  <br>  8 | Confronting, facing. <br> Attempting to kill, conflict. <br> Striking hands with another, bargaining. <br> Making a journey (in company with another). | $\bar{j}=\bar{\xi}$ he approached. うَ he killed. <br> صَ he struck with the open hand. سَفَرَ (obsolete) he journeyed. |

N.B. If the final letter of the basic conjugation is a weak letter $1, g$, $v$ the final syllable of the verbal noun of III conjugation will be ofl or sal; e.g.

| صافا | \% | Being sincere | ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | towards. | pur |
| لا | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { لِقاء } \\ \text { ماقاء } \end{array}\right.$ | Meeting face to face, encounter | \% كِ he met. |

N.B. In verbs of which the second and third letter are the same, the so-called 'doubled verbs', the form tion; e.g. from - - -

IV

| 1 <br> Prefixing hamzat al$q a t^{*}$ to the basic form. | ¢ | Bringing about the condition or action implied by I, making active verbs causal. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |


| $\begin{gathered} \text { SERIAL } \\ \text { NUMBER OF } \\ \text { DERIVED } \\ \text { CONJUGATION } \end{gathered}$ | conjugation form | MEASURE OF verbal noun | Signification of the CONJUGATION | MEANING OF THE BASIC FORM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Examples | \| أْ <br> أُنْ <br> أَلْ <br> - 1 | إْ إْصَأفـف إلْزَزَ <br> !إْسْاَن | Causing to know, informing, announcing. <br> Halving, dividing equally, equitably. <br> Attaching <br> (blame) to, a.ccusing. <br> Making agree- <br> able, showing | مَ he knew. <br> - تَ it was a half. <br> $\because j$ it at tached to (him). نَ it was agreeable, |
|  |  |  | kindness, \&c. | pleasing. |

In some verbs this conj. implies 'taking a direction'; thus $\bar{j}$ 年 ${ }^{\circ}$ 'he took a forward direction', and its converse io io ; verbal nouns .
N.B. If the basic conjugation begins with a weak letter the usual rules for permutation must be applied; e.g.

| أؤوْضَ | ! | Causing to flash, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | for | giving a secret signal. | it flashed. |
| Co | إ0060 | Making safe, | نil he was |
| for | for | hence 'the faith'. | safe. |

N.B. In 'hollow' verbs, i.e. verbs which have the middle letter weak, the form إفإِ إفالَ becomes buppression and compensation; e.g.

 | Making permis- | jَ $\begin{array}{l}\text { it was } \\ \text { sible, } \quad \text { giving } \\ \text { lawful. }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- | permission.

Describes the consequence of II, more especially with reference to oneself. Middle or reflexive.

N.B. This conjugation may also convey the idea of feigning, pretending.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { SERIAL } \\ \text { NUMBER OF } \\ \text { DERIVED } \\ \text { CONJUGATION } \end{gathered}$ | conjugation form | MEASURI OF vERBAL NOUN | SIGNIFICATION of the CONJUGATTON | $\begin{aligned} & \text { meaning } \\ & \text { of the } \\ & \text { basic Form } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Examples | تَهَهَآَتَ | تَّارُض | Making oneself as one sick [in order to impose on some other person]. | "َرْض he was ill. |
| VII |  <br> By prefixing - to the triliteral root. |  | Being affected by the action of I. Passive. |  |
|  |  |  | Being cut. <br> Being broken. | غ́ط"قَ he cut. - <br> he broke |
|  | إْنَشَيَفَ | إِنْكِشاف | Being laid bare, disclosed. | كَشَفَت he laid bare, disclosed. |
| VIII | お星 |  | Expresses (a) the resultant condition of the subject of the action denoted by the basic form, (b) a more intense form of I. |  |
| Examples | إْجْتَ | 1 إْتْـْ عا | Collection, aggregation. | Con he col lected. |
|  | إْْتَتَتَعَ |  | Being open, or opening. | he opened. |

## Note 1. On the VIIth and VIIIth Conjugations

That there is some danger of the seventh and eighth derived conjugations being confused is shown by the fact that in some dictionaries the forms إْنِّنِهاض and are shown as being of the seventh con-
 It will be seen that triliteral roots of which the first letter is $u$ might
 conjugation, if so formed, would have a doubled $u$ after the initial hamaa.

There is really no possibility of confusing the seventh and eighth forms if the following facts are borne in mind:-
(1) Verbs of which the first letter of the triliteral root is $u$ do not employ the seventh form, but use the eighth in a passive sense, thus
 I
 spread out' or spread out'.
 string)'
(2) No triliteral root of which the first letter is $w$ has the seventh conjugation. Consequently, we may state as a practical rule, that any verb form of which the first three letters are ${ }^{\text {l }}$ must be of the eighth conjugation, while all verbs which have the first two letters followed by any letter other than $\omega$ will be of the seventh conjugation.

## Note 2. On the form of the Eighth Conjugation as modified by the rule for permutation. § 128, Note, p. 148

(a) In the VIIIth conjugation from a basic form commencing with

 servile.
(b) If the first letter of the basic form is $g$, the verbal noun of the form ${ }^{2}$ 'it was right' we get إتّفاق. The following are the steps by which the final form is reached. Proceeding by rule the form of the verbal noun will be إؤتر, this becomes and by assimilation of $v$ to the servile of the form we get the final form إتِّفِاق
(c) Similarly, in the case of verbs whose first letter is $\boldsymbol{i}$, the VIIIth conjugation formed according to rule will require to undergo modification: thus ${ }^{-1 / 1}$ 'he ordered ' makes its verbal noun of the form thus, إت0 or, when modified in accordance with the rule for permutation, إيتِ
(d) Verbs of which the first letter is c form the verbal noun (VIII) in two ways, the radical $s$ being allowed to stand or being assimilated



The various changes undergone by the servile - of the VIIIth conjugation form have already been described.

The IXth derived conjugation is not, with the exception of an occasional verbal noun, met with in Persian.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { SERIAL } \\ & \text { NUMBER OF } \\ & \text { DERIVED } \\ & \text { CNJUGATION } \end{aligned}$ | conjugation form | measure of verbal noun | signiftcation <br> of the conjogation | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MEANING } \\ & \text { OF THE } \\ & \text { BASIC FORM } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XExamples | إسْتِنْ <br> By prefixing the letters إستِ to the triliteral root. |  | The most usual sense in which this conjugation is used is that of desiring or seeking, or asking for. |  |
|  | ! إنْتُتْ | إسْتْتْتْ | Seeking liberty, or desiring to set free from. | जَ be became free or secure from. |
|  |  <br>  |  | Seeking assistance. <br> Seeking explanation. | ظَاَهَر تَاهَرَ he assisted. تَ he explained. |

Another meaning of this conjugation is considering or thinking a person or thing to possess qualities expressed by the basic conjugation.

| إْتْتَصْوَبَ | إِسْتِّوَاب | Thinking right. | مواب that whichisright or lawful. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ! ! ! | 品 | Considering to be entitled to as a right. | ज it was just proper, right. |
| ¢ | إِنْتِهْقَار | Thinking one mean or contemptible. | حَقُح he was mean, contemptible. |
| إِسْتَعْبَرَ | إسْتِكَبَار | Thinking oneself great. Arrogance. | great. |

Note. It should be observed that in deriving this conjugation (X) certain modifications occur which are referable to laws already explained. The principal points to notice are-

1 st. If the first letter of the basic form is a weak letter $(1, g, ى)$ the kasra of the opening syllable radical letter into the $v$; e.g. from -


2 nd . If the middle letter of the basic form is a weak letter $(1, g, v)$ this letter is dropped in forming the verbal noun $X$, and $\bar{\gamma}$ is added to



3 rd . If the final letter of the basic form is a weak letter $(1, g, v)$ this will appear in the verbal noun X as hamza; e.g. from وف大 the verbal noun X will be she however, that in Persian this hamza is dropped in writing.

4th. If the second and third letters of the basic form are the same, as in ${ }^{\circ}$ basic form, become separated in the verbal noun X ; e.g. from do we get
 . إسْتِّهْمْاَ

## 

§ 132. In respect of its form the quadriliteral verb may be distinguished as-
 a triliteral of which the second and third radicals are alike, but with the third radical dropped; e.g. زلزل 'shaking' (from jo for ${ }_{j}$ ' slipping').
 generally a liquid or a sibilant, is prefixed or affixed to, or inserted in the middle of a triliteral verbal form; e.g. دَ 'rolling' (from


Under this head is also classed the denominative, formed from words of more than three letters; e.g. .
 'a mocker', \&c., rt. "َّ

30 The 'compounded verb' (فَعْلِ ََتْوْوُ) , which is a combination of the most prominent letters or syllables in certain common formulas ;
 x
§133. The quadriliteral verb has a ground-form and three derived forms; but these are of rare occurrence. To indicate the measures of these forms an additional $J$ is used for the fourth radical letter.

## 1) The Verbal Noun of the First Form (مْمَر رباعئُ مُْتَرْد)

§134. The verbal noun or infinitive of the first or ground-form may be of the measure common; e.g. وَوْوَ 'whispering'; בَحْرابِ 'rolling' (from


Note. The first form of the quadriliterals corresponds to the second form of the triliterals, and may be transitive or intransitive in signification.

> 2) Verbal Nouns of the Derived Forms (مَمْتَرِ رباعئُ مَزيد)
§135. The verbal nouns of the derived forms are as follows:-
Form of Measure of Preterte Verbal Noun

## Examples

II.

| - | 列 'becoming in a state of motion, being shaken'. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |

Note. The second form agrees in formation and signification with the fifth of the triliteral verb.
III. J ل or crowd' (from حَرْمَ crowding together', from the triliteral جَ (becoming collected together').
Note. This form corresponds to the seventh of the triliteral; the difference being only in the position of the characteristic $n$. It is a form of extremely rare occurrence in Persian.
IV. Jلَّ

 occurs in Persian).
 x $x$ ' ${ }^{\circ}$ ' leaning back').
Note. The fourth form corresponds to the ninth of the triliterals. It is intransitive, and expresses an intensively or extensively high degree of an act, state, or quality.

## The Masdar-i-Mīmī

§ 136. The masdar-i-mimi in the case of the quadriliteral verb is, as in the triliteral verb, of the same measure as the noun of place or time (§ 140); e.g.


## Other Deverbal Nouns

§ 137. Connected with the verbal nouns are the following classes of deverbal nouns.

§ 138. The nomen vicis, or noun that expresses the doing of an action once (called also $\left.8{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}-0^{-0}\right)$, corresponds to the noun of unity in Persian. It is formed by adding the feminine termination $\ddot{\alpha}$ - to the verbal nouns, except those which already end in $\ddot{\alpha}-$. The measure of the verbal noun of the first form of the triliteral verb which is always selected to form the nomen vicis is ${ }^{\text {in }}$; that of the second (or derived) form,

$\begin{array}{ccc}\text { Form of Measure of } \\ \text { Preterite Verbal Noun } & \text { Examples }\end{array}$


## 及. The Noun of Kind (



 of riding'.

Note. If the verbal noun itself has the form noun of kind must be expressed by circumlocution. Recourse must also be had to circumlocution in the case of the derived forms, since there is no special measure for forming the noun of kind from these.
r. The Noun of Place and Time (
§ 140. The noun of place, \&c. (called also السْ nomen vasis), formed from the ground-form of the triliteral verb, is usually of one of the three following measures:

$$
\text { 1. - } 1 \text { 2. }
$$

1. مَهْعْلَ ; e.g. 'a place where writing is taught, a school'; l. 'the place aimed at or made for, destination' (from قصد ' "



 prostration in prayer, a mosque' (from سبـ)

Note 1. Some nouns may have either of the above forms; e.g. . maskan or maskin 'the place where one dwells, habitation' (from سك) ; مجa majmai or majmi" 'a place of collecting, meeting, or assembling ' (from eor).

Note 2. Nouns of time or place, formed from verbs which have, or $v$ for the first radical, are usually of the measure $\mathcal{J}$ 'the place where anything is put, a place' (from وضع) ; gég'time or place of a promise or appointment, fixed time or place' (from $l c_{\mathrm{g}}$ ).

But some nouns derived from this class of verbs are of the measure
 (from geg; whence 'a promise'); ; 'time of birth' (from $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{g}}$ ).

 "

Note 3. Some nouns have both forms; as- $\alpha$ lif mahlaka or mahlika 'a place where people perish, a desert' (from ©

And some nouns (if not derived from a weak verb) have zamma in the second syllable, and even admit of three forms; as-8 8 - ${ }^{-9}$ 'a cemetery' (= maqbara); Xi̊-: 'a place where people perish' ( = mahlaka or mahlika).

Note 4. The nouns of time and place from the derived forms of the triliteral verb, or from the quadriliteral, are identical in form with the nomina patientis or passive participles; e.g.

IV. . the place through which, or the time when, one is made to enter' (from 1
VII. صرف صر. $^{\text {) }}$
VIII. (جم).

## 8. The Nomen Instrumenti (I) إْمَ (ت)

§ 141. The ism-i-ālat is the noun which denotes the instrument one uses in performing the act expressed by the verb from which it is derived. This noun has the measures distinguished from the noun of place by the kasra with which the


 pair of scales' (from وزن 'weighing'); رون (a ' being windy').
 metaphorically as adjectives, in the sense of 'doing something like a machine, mechanically, and therefore habitually'; e.g. يُعّْقوال or
 'advancing boldly, daring' (from تدم).

## b) The Nomina Agentis et Patientis

§142. The nomina agentis et patientis are verbal adjectives, closely corresponding in nature and signification to what we call participles. Like the corresponding adjectives in Persian they often become substantives.

## 1. The Nomina Agentis (انمْاءُ اْنْمَاعِل)

$\S 143$, a). The nomina agentis which are derived from transitive verbs are real participles, indicating a temporary, transitory, or accidental action or state of being, and also serve as adjectives or substantives, expressing a continuous action, a habitual state of being, or a permanent quality. The nomina agentis derived from the first form of the triliteral verb usually have the measure iكَاعِل; e.g. 'judging, a judge' (from خa 'to judge '); خادِم 'serving, a servant' (from خلم 'to serve'); ' ' a learned man, a scholar' (from 'to know'); كاتبـ 'writing, a scribe or secretary'(from كتب 'to write'); J.ST (for $j$ Jilii) 'eating, an eater' (from J $\mathrm{S}^{i}$ ' to eat').
b). If, however, the ism-i-fácil is derived from an intransitive verb, it generally has ouly the participial sense; e.g. فإر 'being glad, rejoicing' (from "َفِرَ 'to be glad'; the adjective from which is 'gladsome, cheery').

But it is sometimes used as an attributive (verbal) adjective ( $v . \S 155$ ); e.g. أِيْ 'secure, safe' (from أِينَ' to be secure'); سالـِم 'safe, sound' (from 'وَّ 'to be safe') ; 'full, complete, ample, abundant' (from وَرْرَ ' to be full').

Note a, 1). When the second radical is one of the weak letters $f, g$, or $\mathcal{v}$, the kasra which accompanies it causes it to be changed to $\stackrel{\text { S }}{3}$;


But in the Persian of the present time $ـ$ as commonly substituted for $\xrightarrow{2}$.
2). When the second and third radicals are identical, the second rejects its vowel and unites with the third, so as to form a double letter, which is marked with tashdid. But in Persian the tashdid is usually dropped when the ism-i-fá $\hat{i} t$ is not the governing noun in the
 (from =ْ =
3). When the third radical is $i^{\prime}$ or, , it is changed to ${ }_{s}$ or $v$; e.g.
 ' empty' (from 疒 'to be empty ').

Note b. The nomina agentis may be strengthened by the addition
 'treacherous '); ; دَ

## 2. The Nomina Patientis ( (أَّهُ

§ 144. The measure of the nomen patientis, or passive participle, is $\$$. Like the nomen agentis, it is often employed as a substantive; e.g. 'to serve'); تَعْالوْ ' 'known' (from the passive of

 -بْسور maisur 'made easy' (from the passive of easy').

Note $a, 1$. If the second radical is hamza, it will take the form ? or ؤَ g ; e.g.

## The Passive Participle of the First Form 165

2. If the second radical is $g$, it is elided, but throws back its zamma upon the preceding vowelless letter. The same thing takes place when the second radical is $\mathcal{\checkmark}$, but, to indicate the elision of radical $\mathcal{v}$, the zamma is changed into kasra, and the servile, is in consequence changed into $\leqslant$; e.g. (for $\quad$. the passive of (خَانَ) ; (for of $\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}$ بَّ
3. When the third radical is hamza, it usually takes the form $\varepsilon$. But it may be assimilated to the servile $g$, which will then be marked with tashdīd in Arabic, but not in Persian, unless the passive parti-
 'read' (from the passive of ${ }^{5 \prime},-\bar{a}$ ' to read').
4. When the third radical is , or $\mathcal{\checkmark}$, the following changes occur in the form of the passive participle:
a) The servile,$-\bar{u}$, coalesces with the radical , into ${ }_{g}^{\mu}$; but the tashdid is dropped in Persian, except in the construct state; e.g. "تَ (for

$\beta$ ) In the case of $v$ as third radical, the influence of the radical $v$ converts the servile, into $\mathcal{\varepsilon}$, the two coalesce into (the tashdīd being dropped in Persian), and in consequence the zamma preceding the servile, becomes kasra; e.g. مَتْ (for cast' (from the passive of (to throw ').
 fem. .
 truth, a true account'.

## 3. The Participles of the Derived Forms

§145. The verbal adjectives formed from the active and passive voices of the derived forms of the triliteral verb, as well as those from the quadriliteral verb, are given below. The learner will notice that every one of these has the servile $p$ with the vowel zamma (i.e. $m u$ ) prefixed, and that the difference between the measure of the active and that of the passive consists only in the vowel of the final syllable, the former taking kasra and the latter fatha. Also that many of then are to be used as nouns, the active forms denoting the agent and the passive forms the patient.

## The Triliteral Verb

Form Measure
OF OF
Pret. Act, Part.
إسمر_ فاعِل

Measure
of
Example
Pass. Part.
5
II. ${ }^{-100}{ }^{-1}$
(rt.
 (rt.
 (rt. تَرْتَ
V. لْمْ (rt.
 (rt. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$ مَ
VII. Jo

$$
\text { (rt. } .
$$


(rt. دَحَعَ).
 (rt. $\left.\bar{\sigma}^{-\bar{z}}\right)$.

## The Quadriliteral Verb


(rt.


III. $\mu$ Ur
IV. $\quad$ Jor

Note. When one of the radicals is $i, g$, or $s$, the participles from the derived forms are subject to the same changes as those from the first form.

[^16]
## c) Other Verbal Adjectives

§ 146. Besides the nomina agentis et patientis, there are other verbal adjectives derived from the first form of the triliteral verb, and called
 ciples, i.e. in respect of their inflection). These adjectives are

 measure $\mathcal{U}^{\text {(lyép }), ~ \& c . ~ M o s t ~ o f ~ t h e m ~ c o m e ~ f r o m ~ n e u t e r ~ v e r b s, ~ a n d ~}$ express, partly, a quality inherent in a person or thing-which is their most usual signification-and, partly, a degree of intensity. The measures of the more important of these are as follows :-

## a) Adjectives of the Measure

§ 147. Intensive Adjectives. Adjectives of this measure are of common occurrence in Persian. The following are examples:-

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { بكـيل 'stingy, a miser'. } & \text { شريضر 'wise, a sage'. } \\
\text { مريض 'sick, ill, an invalid'. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. Adjectives of this measure sometimes indicate a very high degree of the quality possessed by the subject; as - $\rightarrow$, 'very compassionate' ; الي 'most painful'.

Note 2. When derived from transitive verbs, adjectives of this measure usually have a passive sense ; e.g. اسير 'bound, a captive';


Note 3. These adjectives may be strengthened in their meaning by the addition of the affix $\bar{\alpha}-$, which is said to be used 'for intensifying' (برايِ مُبالغx); e.g. عقيله 'excellent'; 'noble, very generous'.
 sordid, base' (from لُّ ${ }^{\text {b }}$.

And when the second radical is, or $v$, the measure $\mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{f}} \underset{\in}{ }$ gecomes by transposition فَنْ frequently shortened to ${ }^{\circ}$; e.g.




When $f$ or , or $\varepsilon$ is the third radical, it is assimilated to the

 'captive'.

## ß) Adjectives of the Measure

§ 148. Intensive Adjectives. The verbal adjectives of this measure often indicate $\quad$ very high degree of the quality which their subject possesses, or an act done with frequency or violence by the
 they indicate intensiveness), they are called أَسْالِي مُبالغ 'nouns of
 'very ignorant'; صَبْو 'patient, or very patient'; غَفْر 'very forgiving'.

Note 1. When derived from transitive verbs, adjectives of this measure sometimes have a passive sense ; e.g. 'رسؤز' 'sent,-a message-



Note 2. The termination a - may be added to these adjectives, to strengthen the idea of intensiveness (برايِ تاكيدِ مُبالغx) ; as - مله 'tired of, disgusted with'; منون ' 'taunting one with favours' (conferred on him).

Note 3. When the second radical is hamza, it takes the form $;$, or
 root رأنـ).

When the third radical is $l, g$, or $\varsigma$, it is assimilated to the servile , and marked with tashdidd; which, however, is often dropped in Persian, even when the adjective is the governing word in the status constructus ; e.g. عَدُو (for "عَدُ) 'hostile, an enemy' (for عَدُور).

## r) Aljectives of the Measure فَعْال

§ 149. Intensive Adjectives. The adjectives of this measure are derived chiefly from those of the measure فاعِ. They add the idea of intensiveness or of habit to the signification of their primitives, and thus approach very nearly in meaning to adjectives of the measures


(from سائُع).
$م^{\mu \mathrm{E}} \mathrm{E}$ 'very learned, a great scholar'.
Note 1. The nouns which indicate professions and trades are usually

 'a druggist'; بَقّال 'a green-grocer'.

Note 2. As in the case of the other verbal adjectives, the addition of the termination $\mathbb{\alpha}$ - to the adjectives of this measure strengthens the idea of intensiveness ; e.g.
هعَ

xole c 'a very learned man'.
. 'very talkative, a great talker'.
Rem. The measures of some others of the intensive adjectives less

 holy'; 4. فاروق 'discriminating' (a title of the Khalifa

8) The Noun of Pre-eminence (1اسْم, تَفْفْيل)
§ 150. The Comparative and Superlative. The measure of the asmā-i-tafẑil is $\mathcal{L}$-最, fem. adjectives having the signification of our comparative and superlative. The positives are usually verbal adjectives with three radicals, or three radicals and a letter of prolongation; e.g. بْسِ ' ' more or most


 'strong ') ; آْبَ ' greater, greatest' (from 'Sreat').

Note 1. When the third radical is $v$ or, (which is converted into ज), it assumes the nature of the alifi-maqsüra ( $v . \S 7$, Rem. $b$ ), as in امْاَّو 1 , as shown above.

Note 2. The Noun of Colour, \&cc. Verbal adjectives which
 (v. § 158); e.g. آْ اسْود 'black'; 'red 'stupid, a blockhead';


## II. DENOMINATIVE NOUNS

a) The Noun of Unity (الـْم, $)$
§ 151. The noun of unity designates one individual out of a genus, or one part of whole consisting of several similar parts. It is formed like the analogous ism-i-marra (§ 138), by adding the termination $\approx$ - to the noun that expresses the genus or whole; e.g. 8رَ 'trees'). In Persian the noun of unity is scarcely distinguishable from the generic noun.
b) The Noun denoting the Vessel which contains anything
$\S 152$. The nouns denoting the vessel or receptacle of anything (called (إمْ , (§ 141); e.g. forms, however, are of rare occurrence in Persian; the suffix dān being commonly employed in that language to form the nomen vasis.

> c) The Relative Adjective (إسْ_ مَنْسوُب)
§ 153, a. Relative adjectives are formed by adding to nouns (substantives, adjectives, participles, or pronouns), and to particles, the termination ${ }_{\mathrm{s}}$-. They denote that a person or thing belongs to, or is connected with, the words from which they are derived in respect of origin, family, birth, sect, class, trade, \&c. The tashdīd is dropped in Persian when the $\mathcal{v}$ is the final letter, but is usually restored in
 earth, earthly' (from شْ شْ شْس 'il 'the earth'); 'solar' (from

 'scientific' (from perceptible by one of the senses '; شرنى 'legal' (from 'the law'); قِيَآىى 'according to analogy' (قياس).

This termination corresponds to the Persian suffix $\varsigma$-, which is also employed to form adjectives of relation, and called يالي نِّبْبت (see p. 138).

Note. In forming the relative adjectives, the primitive nouns undergo various changes in regard to the auxiliary consonants, to the final radicals, and $\mathcal{v}$, and to the vocalization. The principal of these are as follows:

1) The feminine terminations $\alpha-$, and $\ddot{a}_{-}^{-}$- (in Persian $\approx$ or


 persons'); انْ 'African' (from انِيِّى 'Africa').
2) The feminine termination $v-(1-)$ is generally rejected. But if the noun have only three letters besides the $\mathfrak{v}$, and the second letter is without a vowel, the $\checkmark$ may either be rejected or changed into $g$;
 (from دُنْ 'the present world'; feminine of the comparative (اْ دَنى $)$
3) When new relative adjectives are to be formed from relative adjectives, the terminations $\stackrel{\sim}{-}$ - and ${ }^{\circ}-{ }_{-}^{\circ}-$ of the latter will fall


4) The terminations of the dual and the regular plurals are rejected before adding the termination of the relative adjective; as'relating to two, dualistic ' (from the dual نأْنْ ' 'two'); (relating to the two harams' ( Madina ').
5) Nouns of three, or four, radical letters (especially the former) which have the alif-i-maqsira ( 1 or $\downarrow, v . \S 7$, Rem. b) or $s$, as the third radical, change these into, before adding the termination ${ }^{*}$-;

 letters, the final is usually rejected ; as a
6) Primitive defective substantives, i.e. those which have lost their third weak radical (as ابا, \&ce.), generally recover the lost radical in the relative adjective; but it always appears as $g$, whether it was



7) In nouns of the measure $\begin{gathered}\text { e, the kasra of the middle letter is }\end{gathered}$ changed into fatha in the relative adjective; e.g. ' a king'.
b. From some nouns a relative adjective is formed by adding the termination J - -, in which the increment $-\bar{a} n$ - is adjectival, and originally implies a certain degree of intensity; e.g.


 to light (نور), luminous, bright'.

## d) Abstract Nouns of Quality (1)

§ 154. Abstract nouns of quality are formed by adding the feminine termination $\bar{\alpha}$ - to relative adjectives. The same form also serves to represent the thing or things signified by the primitive noun as






Rem. In a few words the Aramaic termination $\boldsymbol{H}$ - is similarly employed; as جَ جَ جَرْوّا 'pride, haughtiness, omnipotence' (from
 (from ©
$\S 155$, a. The usual measure of the diminutive, when it is formed
 'Hasan'. When the noun is quadriliteral, the diminutive is of the measure the fifth letter is dropped before forming the diminutive; e.g. 'a quince' makes its diminutive ${ }^{\text {mingen }}$
b. The feminine terminations ${ }^{\circ}-, v^{-}=, \& c$. ; the relative termination $\mathfrak{c}-$-; and the dual and plural terminations; are all disregarded in forming the diminutives, but are added to them afterwards; e.g.
 . بصْ 'a man's name'; 'belonging to Baṣra' (بصْرْ) ; مُسْ

Rem. The Arabic diminutive is not of very common occurrence in Persian.

## Formation of Feminines from Masculines

§ 156. The most usual termination, by the mere addition of which to the masculine feminines are formed, is $\bar{\alpha}-($ Persian $\Sigma)$; as a

 'a schoolmistress' from
§ 157. Feminines in $\mathrm{s}^{-}$are formed-
a) From adjectives of the measure ${ }^{\text {Heque }}$, the measure of the
 from ex e 'thirsty'.
b) From adjectives of the measure ${ }^{\text {b }} \mathrm{F} \mathrm{O}$, when they have the superlative signification, in which case the measure of the feminine is نْعْلَ smallest'; آَ آْل (for暞 'other, another'.
§158. Adjectives of the measure $ل=\frac{1}{\mathrm{o}}$, which have not the comparative and superlative signification, form the feminines by adding the termination $\tilde{=}\{-$ (which, in Persian, takes the form $1-$ ), and dropping the initial hamza, thus the measure of the feminines is


§ 159. Adjectives of the measure $ل$ فَاعِل (transitive or intransitive); and those of the measure when it has the meaning of feminine; but are of both genders. لَ passive in meaning, and
 respectively.

## Number

§160. Arabic nouns have three numbers, the singular, dual, and plurul.
§161. The Dual. The dual is formed by adding the termination U- to the singular (omitting the tanwinn); as êt kitäbāni 'two books', from (كَتأبَ (

Note. The final vowel of the dual is always dropped in Persian ; e.g. توأمان.
§ 162. The Plurals. There are two kinds of plurals. The one, which has only a single form, is called דَ جon the sound or perfect plural, pluralis sanus', and plural', because all the vowels and consonants of the singular are retained in it. The other, which has various forms, is called , altered from the singular by the addition or elision of consonants, or the change of vowels.
§163, a) The Regular Plural. The sound or regular plural (pluralis sanus) of masculine nouns is formed by adding the
 That of feminine nouns which end in $\dot{\dot{\alpha}}$ - is formed by changing

 Mariam.

Note. Since Persian rejects the final short vowel of an Arabic word, and changes o to 8 or - , the plural terminations assume, in Persian,
 (sing. هركت).
b) The Regular Fem. Plur. The pluralis sanus feminine is formed not only from fem. nouns generally, but from-

1) Most of the nomina verbi of the first form, and all nomina verbi
 'definition'; تعريف

2) Many masc. substantives which have no broken plural; and some fem. nouns which have not a feminine termination; e.g. جماداس from جهاد 'an inorganic thing'; حَيْانات from 'a a living thing, an animal'; ماجريات mājarayāt, from مَاتِّا 'an event or occurrence' (lit. 1 or heavens'.
3) Verbal adjectives, which are used in the plural as substantives;
 oَ
 ' covered with skin, bound, a volume ').
§164. The Broken Plurals. The broken plurals of the Arabic are of frequent occurrence in Persian, and are found in a variety of forms. The measures of the most common of these are-
I. لأَنْعَل as a superlative), and ${ }^{-1} \mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{O}$ - (especially from verbs having, for the second radical), may take this plural form; e.g.
1. هissis 'a present', أْمَ

2. دَوْلت 'a dynasty', دُوْرَ ; نُوْ ; 'a turn',
II. فُنُل. The singulars are generally-
3. Nouns (chiefly substantives) of the measures


4. Substantives of the measures فُعَعَال , نَعَال , not derived either from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or of
 'a bed',
5. Substantives of the measures from verbs of which the third radical is, or v; eeg.

6. Verbal adjectives of the measures not a passive signification, and are not derived from verbs which have , or for the third radical; e.g. نذير 'one who warns',

III. فِق. The singulars are-
7. Substantives of the measure

8. Substantives of the measure ${ }^{\text {قامت ; خَيْمَ }}$ 'a fathom', م".
IV. فیعال. The measures of the singulars which have this form of plural are numerous. Those which commonly occur in Persian are-
9. Substantives of the measures ${ }^{\text {Ge }}$ (but not from verbs having $\mathcal{V}$
 'a wind', ظِّلِّ
10. Substantives of the measures

 which the second and third radicals are identical, or the third radical
 حَحَّهِ 'handsome',
 'a beast of prey', wu.
11. Verbal adjectives of the measure كَفَعِّ, fem. not having
 مريض 'sick', مراض.
 تِيجار , تامِر ; صِهاب 'a merchant'.
V. فُقُؤ. The singulars are-


 . فُلُؤك , a ship " فَلك ; جُنُود


12. Verbal adjectives of the measure فأفل, not from verbs of which the second and third radicals are the same, or which have, or $\varepsilon$ for
 .
VI. لفُّ. The singulars are verbal adjectives of the measure $ل$ not derived, generally speaking, from verbs which have, or $\mathcal{G}$ for the


VII. . The singulars are verbal adjectives of the measure denoting rational beings, and not derived from verbs which have, or $\leqslant$ for the third radical; as

VIII. the measure $ف \underline{\text { G }}$, denoting rational beings, and derived from verbs of
 ज ' 'a soldier',
IX. ${ }^{\circ}$. 9.
 a slave', رفيق ; فِلْمَ 'a companion',
X. آَّ أْ . The sing. is generally a subst. of one of the measures




 'a judgement, an order', $\dot{\mathrm{C}} \mathrm{F}$.

Triliterals in which the second radical (originally, or s) appears under the form 1 , restore the original radical in the plural; as
 (from انشا

A few verbal adjectives of the measures a pass. signification), also take this form of the plural; as



Note that the plur. of 'دَ 'an enemy', is ' right hand, an oath', أَنْها.
 letter is quiescent (a long vowel), especially substantives of the measures $ل$ derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical,




XIII. فَوَواءِل. The singulars are-

1. Substantives of the measure فاءًl as 'a signet-ring',

2. Substantives, and verbal adjectives (applicable to men), of the



3. Substantives and fem. verbal adjectives of the measure فاعِة ;
 people, the upper classes', خَوْاصّ (for people, the vulgar', عَعَg (for for ${ }^{\sim}$, for


XIV. فَ- فَأِئل. The singulars are fem, quadriliterals of which the third letter is servile or quiescent (a long vowel), whether they have

 a letter, a treatise',
 'a proof',

Rem. The plural form فَفَ occurs rarely in a few other cases ; as عَاْتَ 'a want or need, a thing, an affair or business', 'a pronoun', ضَهْا
XV. Ulle. . $_{0}^{0}$. The singulars, for the most part, are substantives of the measures



1283
XVI. .َ- $\mathrm{\sigma}_{\text {. }}^{\text {. }}$ The measures of the singulars which commonly take this plural are 'brave',


1. Verbal adjectives of the measure ${ }^{\text {N }}$, applicable to rational beings, and which have not the passive signification, and are not derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or of which the third radical is $g$ or $ى$; as


2. Some verbal adjectives of the measure فَاءِ, with the same



Note. The word خليفي, when it signifies a caliph, has for its plural號.
XVIII. $\widetilde{\tilde{L}_{2}} \mathrm{e} \dot{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{T}$. The singulars are mase. adjectives of the measure فَex, mostly derived from verbs of which the second and third radicals are identical, or the second and third radical or or ; as حبيب 'a friend',


XIX.



Note. Some substantives of the measure ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{j}$ َ also take this form of

 fem. substantives of the measure فَفِيلَ from verbs of which the third



Note. From the preceding table it is evident that one singular may have several forms of the broken plural, and even a sound or regular plural besides. In such cases, if the singular has several meanings, it often happens that each of them has one or more forms of the broken plural which are peculiar to it, or are used in preference to the rest. For example, the word dol means: 1) one who is present, an eyewitness, 2) an evidential example; in the former sense the broken
 means: 1) a tent or house, 2) a verse of poetry; in the former sense the broken plural is
§ 165. The measures of the broken plurals of nouns which consist of four or more consonants, along with the corresponding singulars, are given below.
I. نَعَأِلِّ. The singulars are-

1. Quadriliterals, substantives and adjectives ( $\S$ not being counted as a letter), the consonants of which are all radical; as ${ }^{\text {a }}$


2. Quadriliterals ( $\ddagger$ not included), formed from triliteral roots by





II. adjectives ( 8 not included) of which the penaltimate letter is a letter of prolongation ( $1, g, v$ ); as ) 'a sultan', 'a devil', آَاليم ; تَّ 'a composition', تَتصانيف ; .يَعَاسيبِ :

Note. The substantives دينا, 'a din̄ār', قيراط 'a carat', دِيوَان 'a register ', \&c., إيوان 'an arched portico, a vestibule', and a few more, also have this measure for the plural; as دَوَوِين , قَرْاريط, , دَنانير, and

III. فعَالِّل

1. A few substantives and adjectives of five or more letters (principally foreign words), of which the penultimate letter is a letter


2. Substantives and adjectives of four or more letters, which have not a letter of prolongation before the last radical (especially when they are words of foreign origin), and relative adjectives consisting of
 of swords', مَتَاقِلِ (or (or 'a native of Bagdàd',

Rem. In forming the broken plurals of nouns which contain five or more letters (exclusive of $\bar{\gamma}$ and the letters of prolongation), one of the radicals is rejected, generally the last; e.g. cićer: 'a spider',


Note. The Plural of the Plural. The measures of the broken plurals of quadriliterals and quinqueliterals are also used in forming

 plur. of plur. خَ خَائلِ ; 'a hand, a benefit', plur. آَيْدِى , plur. of plur.
 saying, a speech', plur. آقاويل. Again, many of these broken plurals have sound plurals formed from them by the

 plur. of plur. a regular plur. by the addition of the plur. terminations of that language ( $v . \S 23$ ).
§ 166. The broken plurals denote a number of individuals viewed collectively; and so differ entirely in their meaning from the sound plurals, which denote several distinct individuals of a genus. The broken plurals are, therefore, strictly speaking, singulars with a collective signification, and often approach in their nature to abstract substantives. Hence, too, they are all of the feminine gender.

## The Declension of Nouns

§167. An undefined noun of the first declension has the following terminations to indicate the different cases:-

| Nom. |  |  | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Dual. | Masc. | Fem. |
|  | - | ون | シー |
| Gen., \&c. $\overline{\text { c }}$ |  |  |  |
| Acc. $1=$ or - ) | يِ | - | $\stackrel{\text { ¢ }}{ }$ |

Subjoined is an example of the declension of the noun $\quad$ a father and a mother :

|  |  |  | Plu |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sivg. | Dual. | Masc. | Fem. |
| Nom. | \% | وَالِدَانِّ | وَلِدُونِ | , |
| Gen., \&c. |  |  |  |  |
| Acc. | [ | والِيدِي | 9 | وايدِّ) |

Note. In Persian, the final vowels of the Arabic declension are all dropped, except that of the acc. sing., when this is used adverbially. The nom. sing. (as $\mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{N}}^{\mathrm{N}}$ ) is the form received into Persian. The nom. form of the dual (without the final vowel) sometimes occurs; but the oblique form (e.g. وَاِيَّينْ) is generally used instead of the nominative. The nom. form of the plur. sanus masc, is seldom or never met with; its place is taken by the oblique case (e.g. والِدِيْن ). When received into Persian, these various forms are all treated grammatically just as if they were Persian words.

## The Numerals

## I. The Cardinal Numbers

$\S 168$, a) The cardinal numbers from one to ten are-

| Masc. ( | Fem. जiol | MASC. <br> 5. <br> . | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Fem. } \\ & \text { Fió } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { وحِّ } \\ \text { 先 }\end{array}\right.$ | \% ${ }^{\text {82 }}$ | 6. | بٌ |
|  | 年 |  | 80\% |
|  | 1 ثِنْتَانِّ |  |  |
| 3. ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |  |  | تِّهْ |
| 4. ${ }^{\text {axa }}$ \% | 20, ${ }^{\circ}$ | 10. | \% |

Rem. The cardinals from 3 to 10 take the feminine form, when the objects numbered are of the masculine gender, and the masculine form, when the objects numbered are feminine.
b) The numbers from 11 to 19 are formed by prefixing the units to the ten; but in all of them except 11 and 12 the fem. units are used for the mase., and the masc. units for the fem.; e.g. 11. أَحَ عَعَّ (fem.
 (of the unit dropped); 13. . (fem.
c) The numbers from 20 upwards are as follows:-

100. هِائَّ (or in P. مـِيَ ) 200
 1000.

Note. The numbers عِعْرون, \&c., are both masc. and fem. In Persian the oblique forms عِشْر, \&c., are used instead of the nominative (cf. § 167, Note).
d) The numbers compounded of the units and the tens are formed by prefixing the unit to the ten, and uniting them by the conjunction g'and'; as أَحْ ' ' ' one and twenty'. The numerals made up of thousands, hundreds, tens, and units, usually follow the order-units, tens, \&c.; e.g. 464. hundred'.

## Construction of the Numerars

e) From 3 to 10 the numerals put the thing numbered in the oblique case of the broken plural (preferably a plural of paucity).

From 11 to 99 the thing numbered is put in the accusative singular.
From 100 to 1000 the thing numbered is put in the oblique case of the singular.

The hundreds when compounded with units are put in the oblique


The thousands are treated as things numbered, and are put in the appropriate case according to the rules above given.

## II. The Ordinal Numbers

§ 169, a) The ordinals fiom second to tenth are of the measure فـاعِل, the radical letters being the same as in the cardinals ; as ${ }^{w} \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{l}$ 'first', ثانِى 'second', ثـلـى 'third', and so on. The feminines are formed by

 signification, has for its fem. जֹ, $\bar{f}$ lu $\bar{u}$.
b) The ordinals from eleventh to nineteenth are formed by adding the cardinal number cic 'ten' to the preceding ordinals, wlaking
 : ثالي عشر ; and so on.

## Distributive Numerals

§170. The distributives are generally expressed by words of the measure $ل$ ثl 's. 'by threes'. The Arabic distributives are not much used in Persian.

## Multiplicatives

§ 171. The multiplicative adjectives are derived from the cardinal numbers, and are of the measure of the passive participle of the




## Fractional Numbers

§ 172. The fractions, from a third up to a tenth, are expressed by words of the measure فُن , or or nals; as iُ ${ }_{0}$,
 is أفعْأ.

## Pronominal Suffixes

§ 173. Of the Arabic pronominal suffixes there is one, viz. $v=$ 'of me, my' (called since it is added to Persian as well as Arabic substantives; as
 my eyes', قـبْا 'object of my adoration, my pole-star or cynosure'. The following couplet from the poet Șā̉ib affords an example of its use :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { هץ نَّ قبلا كَا }
\end{aligned}
$$

"The sun addresses that face of beauty (lit. "open face") as "Light of my eyes"; the new moon addresses her arched brows (lit. "the arch of her eye-brows") as "Object of my adoration".

The plural of $v$ - is ' 'our'; but it is only joined to Arabic nouns; as as مولا 'our lord'.

## The Demonstrative Pronoun

§ 174. The simple Arabic demonstrative 15 'this, that', never occurs alone in Persian. It is occasionally met with in combination with the demonstrative syllable $\mathrm{J} l i$, and the pronominal suffix ©
 lo prefixed; as lio' 'this'. To this the prep. J may be prefixed; as 1'fle 'for this reason', \&c.

Rem．The particle lo has the demonstrative force of the Latin ce in hicce．It is called
§ 175．Closely connected in its origin with 1 l is the word,$\dot{J}$ ，which is commonly used in the sense of possessor，owner．It is declined in all the three numbers；but the cases which occur in Persian（always in Arabic phrases）are－

| Masc．Sing． | Masc．Plur． |
| :---: | :---: |
| Nom．${ }^{\text {j }}$ | أُولو or |
| Gen．ىַ |  |

Of these forms， $\boldsymbol{g}^{\dot{j}}$ most commonly，and the two plurals always are followed by a substantive determined by the article $J \mathbb{J}$ ；as دولْبلال zun＇l－jalāll＇glorious＇；اوولو الآلْباب ulu＇l－albāb＇prudent，intelligent＇； ذوى الِّقْقْ．دار used instead of the nom．$و$ ，and either of them may be followed by an undetermined substantive；as Jذ＇wealthy＇； rational＇；jذ＇sensible＇．It may even be followed by a Persian substantive；as ذه ©＇intelligent＇．
 pronunciation before the article $\boldsymbol{J}$ ．

## THE PARTICLES

## I．Prepositions

§ 176．These are divided into a）inseparable prepositions；b）separable．
a）Inseparable prepositions；as
ب＇in，at，near，by，with，through＇，e．g．بسر＿＇in the name of God＇；J＇to，for，on account of＇，e．g．lid＇on account of this＇； ；＇by＇，in swearing，as 山山山 ال山ّ，＇by God！＇

Note．Before the pronominal suffixes the kasra of the prep．$J$ passes into fatha；as＇لَّ＇to him＇，＇َلْ＇to you＇， the suffix of the first pers．sing．，which absorbs the vowel of the preposition；as لي＇to me＇．
b）Separable prepositions：－These are of two classes－
1）Simple prepositions；as
 ＇of，from，on account of＇．
2) The construct accusatives of nouns; as af 'after'; ; 'between,



## II. Adverbs

§ 177. There are three sorts of adverbs; viz. 1) particles of various origin; 2) indeclinable nouns ending in $u$; 3) nouns in the accusative.

1) Adverbial Particles. Of the adverbial particles but few occur in Persian. The following are some examples:
(explicative), 'that is' (frequently used by commentators) ; بل
 solely, merely' (lit. 'and enough', the Persian و وس ).
2) Indeclinable Nouns. The indeclinable nouns are, for the most part, the same substantives of which the accusatives serve as prepositions. The final $u$ is dropped in Persian; e.g. or or or

3) Nouns in the accusative. The accusative is especially the adverbial case in Arabic, and is very freely used in Persian. The following are a few examples: ${ }^{\prime \prime}$

 (for ${ }^{-1 /(1)}$ ) 'to-day'.

## Conjunctions and Interjections

§ 178. Most of the Arabic conjunctions and interjections which occur in Persian have been already noticed in paragraphs 111 and 112.

## SECTION V. PROSODY

§ 179. Verses in Persian are scanned by a process adopted by the Persian prosodians from the Arabic system, invented originally by one Khalil bin Aḥmad of Baṣra.

 conformity or not with certain standard metres. The literal meaning of ${ }^{0}$ word عَروض has the meaning of the 'standard' or 'muster' for comparison.
§ 180. The method by which this comparison is effected consists in dividing the verse into portions which must correspond with certain standard arrangements of similar portions for each several metre.

The standard portions are called اركان 'pillars' (plural of ; 'a pillar') and are eight in number, as follows:- فـْ


Each one of these إركا, which may be called 'feet' in accordance with our familiar terminology, is made up of ${ }^{\text {in }}$ ' 'elements' (plural of (i)) which have names assigned to them, as under :-
$\left.\begin{array}{c|cc|c}\hline \begin{array}{c}\text { Name of the } \\ \text { Element }\end{array} & \begin{array}{c}\text { NUmber of } \\ \text { and their }\end{array} \text { Vocalization }\end{array}\right]$

All the names of these elements have a reference to a fanciful analogy instituted by the Arabs between a tent and a couplet of poetry, after the following manner. Giving to the tent the name بَيتُ شَغْرٍ 'house of hair', and to the couplet the name of بَيتُ شِعْر
'house of poetry', they enlarge the comparison by naming the component parts of the verse after different parts of the tent.

Thus: Inasmuch as each couplet بَبَ consists of two hemistichs, they give to each of these the name of two flaps which form the door of the tent. Similarly, the 'elements' have received names corresponding to certain necessary parts of the
 'a tent-pole'.
§181. The way in which these 'elements' are combined to form اركان 'feet' is shown in the following table :-

| S', Fоот | Composed of اar <br> Elemfnts as Under | Names of Elements, Reading from Right to Left |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| فَعْوُلُنُ | +َفَوْوْ | وَتَّهِ مَجْهُ + |
| ere | + |  |
|  | + | حَفيفِ (twice) |
|  | مَفِّ | هوع + فاملِّهُ هِ |
|  | $+0 \text { مُتَفَآ }$ | 59\% |
| فاءِلاَّ | ف6 |  |
|  | رَفـف بُر+ | سَبْبِ خَفيفِ (twice) |

§ 182. From the several feet, either by repetition of one foot, or by the orderly combination of two, either in their original form or modified, are formed the various metres, بُ بُ a plural of 'a metre '.
§ 183. Metres are either integral (مَالِّم) or imperfect (مَ In the former class the feet composing the metre are found in their normal perfection, whereas in the latter class the feet deviate from the perfect standard.
The word مُزاحَف means when applied to an arrow 'falling short of the butt', and thus its application to a verse indicates this failure to reach the standard. Such deviation in itself is called $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\underline{\mathrm{L}}}^{\mathrm{j}}$, and this is the general term indicating any kind of deviation from the perfect standard metre.
${ }^{1}$ In some metres this foot is to be regarded as composed of these elements

§184. The following table gives a few only of the principal metres; for a full list a work dealing fully with Prosody must be consulted (v. § 194) :-

| Class | Name of Metre | Standard arrangement of the Feet |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I. Formed of the same foot repeated. |  | نَّ كُفاعِيلُ, " " " <br>  |
| II. Formed of varying feet. |  | repeated forr times. <br> twice repeated. <br> repeated four times |

§ 185. As stated above, metres are commonly used in a form deviating from the standard or integral form of the metre, and for purposes of reference it will be useful to embody some of the more usual with their effect upon the feet in which they occur, in the following table :-


| The Footas affected by THE $\quad$-boj IS CALled | Name ofthe - | Nature of the - | Example of its effect upon the Foot |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| بُ | خر إزاله | Rejecting the of Rer or the of . <br> Adding an alif before the quiescent letter of |  |
|  | ¢ | a final وتد كَّوْع. <br> Suppressing thefourth quiescent letter. | 回 |
| - | خَبْنْ | Suppressing the second quiescent letter. |  |
| عْ | ققْ | (i) Casting out the final سبب خفيف of | $\text { فَاعِعْلُن }=$ |
|  | \% ${ }^{\circ}$ | ففاعِلاتن, then dropping the preceding alif and making the lām quiescent. <br> (ii) Casting out the final letter of a ${ }^{2}$ g, عج preceding letter qui- |  |
|  |  |  |  |

§ 186. In order to refer any given verse to its proper place in the list of metres it is necessary to 'scan' it. This 'scansion' consists in dividing the verse up into its feet $ن, 1$, and comparing these and their arrangement in the given verse with the known metres. This process is called
§187. In proceeding with this scansion ( (تَتَّتْعَ), the student should, from the first, rid his mind of all idea of 'longs' and 'shorts', which have no place in Persian prosody.
§188. The اركان are made up of consonants, vowels, and jazms, which have a constant relation to each other in each separate $\int_{0} ;$, and as it is solely by comparison with these 1,1 that we are enabled to identify a metre, it will be at once clear that all we need take account of is the inter-relation of the consonants, vowels, and quiescent letters of which the words are composed.

This will be better understood by reference to the following verse from Sa'dì's Būstān which is compared with its metrical standard:

Now when we cut this up into its component 1 we find that it conforms closely to one of the metres known as بُرِمُتَقَارِبر , of which the standard is , Thus:-


Final قَصْر (v. § سبب affected 185). So also the second half of the couplet.

We see, then, that this verse corresponds to بَر متقارب, but that its " عَرُضض 'last foot of the first hemistich', and its 'last foot of the second hemistich' are affected by the Accordingly, as the number of feet, $0.1,1$, is eight this metre is
 feet.
§ 189. Another زحذاف commonly found in this metre is حَف which ( $v$. § 185) consists in discarding entirely the final سبب خفيف, thus converting تَ تَعُؤُ into . By the rule which enacts that no form may be used which does not actually exist, لَ
تأمّل در آينٌُ دل كُنى صفائى بتدريدِ حامِل كنى
where the word
 of which are vocalate and the final letter quiescent.
$\S 190$. Points to notice in Scansion. In attempting to scan a verse of poetry by this method, we may fall into error unless certain arbitrary usages of Prosody are borne in mind.
§ 191. Firstly. It may be necessary to give effect in pronunciation to sounds which are not evidently represented by written characters. The chief facts to remember are-
 though it were written as two alifs, thus II; thus in the Būstän:-
بآزار فرمان هـده بر رهى
都 $=$
Talif-i-mamdüda may, however, be counted as a single letter thus:-
كسى خُسْدَ آسُوده دَر زِيرِاًِلِ


(b) The وراو scanned as though spelled in its original form bُورس , thus counting as two letters for scansion.
(c) The $i z a \bar{a} f a t$, إضافت, is optionally pronounced as $v$ metric caus, e.g. the verse
بكالِ دلِ دستگانِ در نگر
which must be scanned: نَحْ

(d) Letters marked with tashdīd (") are to be treated for purposes of scansion as though written twice, e.g.
بعزّت ستاندند پیر ذَليل
 نَعُول = ذَلِيل ; تَعُولُ
§ 192. Secondly. It will be found that certain characters which are regularly written, are nevertheless, as regularly neglected in scansion, and treated as nonexistent. These are as follows:-
(a) الـ! An alif standing in the middle of a hemistich, and accented by the letter which precedes it, is not to be counted for scansion ; egg.
كه كُسْنَد از و مردم آسوده دِل
 نَعَلَ = دَدِل ;

This alif is called by prosodians الفــورَّ a somewhat unfortunate name, as it is liable to be confused with the الفـبـالوونَ of grammar (v. § 7, Rem. b).

If, however, this calif is pronounced independently as when it occurs at the commencement of a foot, it will duly count as a letter in scansion thus:-
ترا نفرت آمد از ويك زمان
 $=$ =فَوْ.
(b) واو. This letter although written is or is not to be counted in scansion in these circumstances:-
(i) When it is واوِ $\begin{aligned} & \text { g } \\ & \text {, the conjunctive } v \bar{a} v \text { which connects two }\end{aligned}$ words:
كا دانش و جود و تقوى نبود
the, may be counted or not as the metre demands. Thus, in the line
 .

In one case the, is counted as a letter, in the other merely as a vowel sound.
(ii) The واو of the words $\because \boldsymbol{y}$, is treated in exactly the same manner, that is to say, is counted or not as the metre demands; erg.
تو بُ خود ببر توشهُ خوِيشتن

Here the واو is dropped, and the scansion is
As an example of, in $و$ required by the metre:-
ذه تو چشثم دارى بِدست كِسى

(iii) The , which follows $\dot{\subset}$ called $\alpha$ by prosodians واو إشهام ضِّهِ , the vav which has the smell of

(c) The ot (v. § 2, p. 7) may be counted for scansion or not, as the metre requires. When it is not counted only the vowel sound it carries is made use of in scansion, as in the following line :-

 . فَعُولِ
N.B. It must be remembered that $(v . \S 2, \mathrm{p} .7)$ is always counted in scansion.
(d) c. When this letter precedes I prosodians differ as to what occurs. Some say that the $v$ is counted and the alif is dropped, while others say that the reverse is the case. For example we may take the line following:-
كا در طفلى از سَر برفتم تیِيرْ
and scan it thus : نَّهُ نَ $j_{j=1}=\sqrt{2}$; or the following:-
زبان دانى آمد بصاحب دلى
 =
The rule that the $\mathcal{v}$ stands when it precedes $I$ seems to be correct. When, however, $\mathcal{v}$ precedes $T$, as in the second example, both letters stand, as shown.
(e) U. Every quiescent $\quad$, following a letter of prolongation and preceding a consonant, when it occurs in the middle of a line is not reckoned in scansion :-
يرِشَان كِن إمروز

If, however, this occurs at the end of a hemistich it counts as a quiescent letter; e.g.
نهْ خواهندهُ بِر دِ ديگران

Here the last foot is to be scanned 0 . فُعُز
§ 193. Another point to be borne in mind in scausion is the use of what is termed vocalization of a quiescent letter followed by another quiescent letter which from its situation must be the first letter of the following foot, as -
چو درويش بى بركّ ديدم درخت

In this verse the v of the word ${ }^{\text {is }}$ is quiescent, and the quiescent ش following it is the first letter of the second foot, for this reason it
 . فَعُورن = شَبى بَر

So also in the following foot the $\mathfrak{*}$ © of the word be vocalized, thus: نَعُوُلُن = گَّى دَم

This vowel of exigency is called without being actually written. It must be remembered that in actual practice this vocalization is so slight as to be barely noticeable.

At the close of a hemistich two quiescent letters occurring together are both counted as quiescent:-
درِّ بود درويش شوريده رنَّى

In this verse the final foot is
§ 194. By applying the foregoing rules a verse in any metre may be scanned. It has not been thought necessary to give examples of metres other than متقارب which is the commonest of all, and is that in which the Shāhnāma of Firdausĩ, the Būstān of Sadì, and other famous poetical works are composed. For further information recourse
may be had to works such as the Chahār Gulzār, 'Arūz-i-Saifī, Hadäiqu-l-Balāghat, \&c., or to one or other of the works mentioned in Professor Browne's Literary History of Persia, vol. ii. pp. 19, 20.

## A Brief Account of the Various Kinds of Poems

§ 195. There are five principal kinds of poetical forms in Persian as noted below:-

1. Qassidda sun. The name of this form is derived from the Arabic root-form قَصَ 'he purposed', thus conveying the meaning of premeditation and consequent elaboration of the poem.

A poem of this type must consist of not less than fifteen couplets, or twenty-five couplets according to some authorities, and must not exceed one hundred and seventy.

The two hemistich composing the first couplet ( $\mathcal{E} \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{B}_{0}^{-}}$) must rhyme, and this rhyme is to be maintained throughout, while each couplet of the perfect قَّصيده should be complete in itself so far as sense is concerned.

The subject of the $\begin{aligned} & \\ & 8 \text { ق is mainly panegyric, but this form is also }\end{aligned}$ employed in natural descriptive poetry. If panegyric, the object is called the ${ }^{\text {an }}$ (praised).

The following few lines quoted as an example of the ra ne are from the opening of the famous poem of that class by the poet Anwarī (ob. A.D. 1189):-






§196. 2. Ghazal $\begin{aligned} & \text { § } \\ & \text { § } \\ & \text { غ }\end{aligned}$ or Ode. The word talking amorously, but the ghazal is made use of not only for actual love poems, but for nature poems, the praises of wine, and by the Ṣūfī poets to give voice to their mystical rhapsodies.

In form the ghazal must consist of at least five couplets, but mast not exceed fifteen. The two halves of the opening couplet must rhyme, and this rhyme must follow in all the second half-couplets.
The sis or pen-name of the poet is introduced into the closing couplet.

The odes of Häfiz are perhaps the best, as they are the best known examples of this form.
§ 197. 3. Qita' sebقֵ or Fragment, a 'portion cut off'. This does not differ in rule of form from the qusĩda. It must contain not less than two couplets, nor more than a hundred and seventy.
§ 198. 4. Masnavī $\mathcal{G}$ وï poem the several hemistichs rhyme with their fellow hemistich throughout. No restriction is imposed as to the number of verses, and the masnavi may be composed in any of the four metres here


As to subject the range is practically unlimited. The Shāhnäma of Firdausì, the Panj-Ganj of Nizūmì Ganjavī, and the Maṣnavī of Jalālu-d-din Rūmī are famous examples of this kind of poem.
§ 199. 5. Rubā̄t̄ sisting of two couplets, is a form of poem written in any one of


The scheme of rhyme in the rubát is usually-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { A } \ldots . . \\
& \text { A } \ldots \\
& \text { B } \ldots \\
& \text { A } \ldots \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

the first, second, and fourth lines rhyming while the third does not. The Rubā̄ $\bar{\imath} y \bar{a} t$ of 'Umar-i-Khayyām, familiar to every one, are of this scheme. In some, however, all four lines have the same rhyme.
§200. In the above paragraphs no attempt has been made to give more than the bare outline of the subject. The student who desires fuller information will do well to consult the introductory chapter of the second volume of Professor Browne's Literary History of Persia, already mentioned.

## APPENDIX I

Note. The following is a reprint of the paragraphs of the first edition of Platts's Grammar dealing with the verb, and the nomenclature used by that author has been left without alteration.
§73. The forms of the verb come (sometimes from one stem, but) generally from two stems, and fall into two groups:-

1. The infinitive stem, which may be found by removing the ending of the infinitive as given in the dictionary.
2. The aorist stem, which, in some verbs, is identical with that of the infinitive; but in the majority of them-not of a few of which are verbs in common use-the infinitive stem does not reveal that of the aorist; e.g. the stems kush-, kan-, and several more, are common to both the infinitive and the aorist ; but in the case of kar-dan, the infinitive stem is kar-, while the aorist stem is kun-; because kar-dan comes from the O.P. kar-tanaiy; but the stem kun-is derived from the O.P. ku-nau-, the stem of the present-indicative of the class which takes the characteristic $n u$, which in (Phl. and) Persian is reduced to $n$ and incorporated with the stem. Or, it may happen that the primitive root, from which the stems are derived, ends in a consonant, which is changed according to certain phonetic laws on its contact with the $t$ of the infinitive ending on the one hand, and with the initial vowel of the aorist endings on the other; e.g. the stem tākh-, of $t \bar{a} k h$-tan, comes from täch-(the strengthened form of the root tach): the final radical $c h$ is changed before $-t a n$ to $\underline{k h}$; while before the vowels of the aorist endings it is weakened to $z$; and thus are obtained the two stems, infinitive t $\bar{a} \underline{h} h$-: aorist $t \bar{a} z-$. Or, again, it may happen that, while the infinitive stem is derived from a primitive root, modified by the laws of phonology alone, the aorist stem (following the rule of the O.P.) presents the root with its vowel strengthened; e.g. primitive root $g u b$ : infinitive stem $g u f$ - (by change of the labial $b$ to the labio-dental $f$ before the ending -tan) ; but, aorist stem, guy(archaic $g \bar{o} y-$ ) for $g \overline{0} b(=$ O.P. gauba-), by elision of $b$ and insertion of euphonic $y$. It is, then, the principle of classes ${ }^{1}$ and characteristics

[^17]as well as the phonetic laws which operate on the contact of final radical consonants with the $t$ of the infinitive ending on the one hand, and the initial vowel of the aorist endings on the other, which, in the majority of cases, determine the formation of the two stems on which the conjugation of the Persian verb depends.
§ 74. Persian verbs may, then, be conveniently arranged in three divisions: $1^{0}$ Verbs derived from unmodified roots or bases. $2^{\circ}$ Verbs containing a characteristic, with or without modification of the base. $3^{\circ}$ Verbs derived from roots modified by phonetic laws.
of the system of the ancient language has, it is true, been abandoned entirely; but a great deal still remains; and much, though lost, has left its impress behind. For example, the O.P. distinguished two classes of tenses or moods,-the special (comprising the pres. indicative, the subjunctive, the imperfect, the imperative, the potential, and the imperfect participle); and the general (comprising the aorist, the future, the perfect, the perfect participle, and the infinitive). Of the special, Persian has preserved the first (called the aorist); the second (called the precative); the fourth and the sixth; and of the general tenses, it has preserved the fourth and the fifth. The O.P. possessed a system of primary and secondary endings : Persian has preserved the primary alone. Lastly, the O.P. divided all verbs into nine classes, with special characteristics. The modern Persian has abandoned this division, but retains the impress of seven of these classes, and hence a series of apparent irregularities. These seven classes, with their characteristics, are subjoined:

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Class } \\ \text { II. } \end{gathered}$ | Characteristic $a$, | added to the root (the vowel of which is strengthened) before the endings of the special tenses ; e.g. rt. bu'to be': stem of pres. indic. $b a v-a$ : rt. gub 'to say': stem of the P.I. gaub-a-. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| III. | ya, | e.g. root $\bar{a} m \bar{a}$ 'to prepare': stem of pres. indic. $\bar{a} m \bar{a}-y a-$. |
| IV. | aya (causal) ; | the root-vowel is strengthened before adding aya; as rt. rich 'to pour': stem of pres. indic. raich-aya-. |
| V. | Reduplication ; $n u$, | e.g. root $d \bar{\alpha}$ 'to give' : stem of pres, indic. $d a d a$ - <br> e.g. root kar 'to do': stem of pres. indic. ku-nau-; the vowel of the characteristic being strengthened: (the $u$ of $k u$ is the O.P. reduction of the primitive vowel $r$ : cf. S. $k r-n \bar{o}-$ ). |
| VII. | $n \bar{a}$, | e.g. root $\bar{a}-f \bar{r} \bar{\imath}$ 'to create' : stem of pres. indic. āfrī-na-. |
| IX. | i, | e.g. root hrap 'to sleep': stem of pres. indic. hrap-ta- |

## A. Verbs Formed Immediately from Primitive Roots

§75, a. In this (not very large) class, the stems of the infinitive and the aorist are the same, and present the root unmodified, except that in some verbs the root-vowel is lengthened ; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bar + prefix pari <br> hvan: (cf. S. swan) | . par-var-dan ' to foster' خواندن khāndan 'to read' | , parvarخوان khān- |
| luar | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { khurdan } \\ \underline{\text { khardan }} \end{array}\right\} \text { 'to eat' }$ | g khur-khar- |
| kush | كشتن. $k$ كشshtan 'to kill' | Skush- |
| kan: (cf. S. khan) | كندن kandan 'to dig | $5 \mathrm{kan}-$ |
| man: (cf. L. maneo) | ט māndan 'to remain' | U⿴囗 mān- |

b. If the root is a shut syllable enclosing the vowel $a$ and having - labial ( $p, b, m$, $f$, and sometimes $v$ ) for its initial letter, Persian generally changes the vowel $a$ to $u$ in the infinitive stem; e.g.

| Roor | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b a r+\operatorname{prefix} \bar{a}$ | آررد $\bar{a}$-vur-dan 'to bring'; <br> but also, âvardan. | gTāvar-, and (by contraction) $\boldsymbol{\top} \bar{a} r$ - |
| bar spar | بردن bur-dan 'to carry, \&c.' $\left.\operatorname{cin}^{\text {supur-dan }} \underset{\text { sipur-dan }}{ }\right\}$ 'to consign , | $\begin{aligned} & \text { بر bar- } \\ & \text { بِ sipar-, and } \\ & \text { سیبر sipār- } \end{aligned}$ |
| mar + prefix ava (avi-shmar) | شهردن shumur-dan 'to count' <br> (Phl. ōshmartan, with initial ō omitted) | شهر shumar-; <br> شها shumār- |

Similarly we find pukhtan for pakhtan (v. §84), and murdan for mardan ( $v . \S 76$, Note 2).
c. A similar change of the root-vowel occurs in the infinitive stem of the following verbs :

d. زدن 'to beat'. The irregularity in the infinitive stem of the verb زدن 'to beat' is due to the elision of radical $n$ (or, strictly speaking, $n$ is assimilated to the $d$ of the infinitive ending, and then $d$ is elided; thus $z a n d a n=z a d d a n=z a d a n)$; e.g. root jan; infinitive زد ز za-dan ' to beat'; aor. stem زن زan-.

Note. راندن, 'to drive'. The verb 'to drive' (aor. stem rān-) is a contraction of the causal رواندن rav-än-dan, of the verb 'رتن 'to go'; aor. stem ${ }^{\text {j }}$ rau.

## B. Verbs with a Characteristic <br> 1) Verbs with the Characteristic a

§ 76. The primitive roots of the class end in $u$, which is strengthened before the characteristic (i. e. $u$ becomes $a u$ ) to furm the stem or base of the O.P. pres. indicative (e.g. rt. bu: pres. indic. stem bav-a). Persian generally lengthens the root-vowel in the infinitive ; and for the aorist stem (which corresponds to the O.P. pres. indic. stem), usually employs $b \bar{u}-$ instead of bau- in the verb bū-dan; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b u:($ cf. S. $b h \bar{u})$ | (بُدن buetical also) 'to be' | . $b a u u$ - $b u \bar{u}$ - (according to usage) |
| shiyu | شدن shu-dan (old شودن) 'to go, become' | شٌ shau- |
| $d r u$ | درودن $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { durū̄-dan } \\ \text { dirū-dan }\end{array}\right\}$ ' to reap' (conjunct $d r$ dissolved in Persian) | دِّرْ dirau-, or durau- |
| $n u+$ prefix $u z$ | . | gj zinau- |

غنودن ' 'to draw'. Rem. 'تودن ghod ghūidan ' to nod, doze' (a verb of doubtful origin), has for its aor. stem ${ }^{\text {eic }}$ ghunaur-. تنود tanūdan 'to draw', \&c., also has for its aor. stem تنو tanu. The characteristic of the class to which the root ${ }^{\text {b belongs }}$ is $u, \operatorname{not} a$ : the stem of the O.P. pres. indic. is $\tan -u: \operatorname{tanu} \bar{d} d a n$ would therefure appear to be formed by false analogy.

بود. Imperative of Note 1. A very common form of the
 the stem of the O.P. pres. indicative, but is a relic of the O.P. future in -ishy-; i. e. bāsh = O.P. bavishy-a- (cf. S. bhavishya-). From this, by analogy, comes the common, but improper imperative بأش bāsh.

نردنر 'to die'. Note 2. The verb die', also belongs to a class the roots of which take the characteristic $a$; but it is a class distinct from that noticed above. The root used in forming the stem of the ancient pres. indic. is a prim. mr ; and before the characteristic the vowel ${ }_{o}$ is changed to riy-, whence the primitive base mriy- $a$-, which, in O.P. appears as $m \bar{r} r y-a$-, and in the aorist stem of the Persian as $m \bar{\imath} r$-. The infinitive stem comes from the strengthened base mar of the root $m r$; the root-vowel being changed to $u(v . \S 75, \mathrm{~b})$. Thus we have inf. مردن mur-dan (base mar): aor. stem mīr( $=$ O.P. mīry- $\alpha-$ : primitive mriy- $a-$ : rt. $m_{5}$ ).

## 2) Verbs with the Characteristic aya

§77. The characteristic is, in some cases, added to an unmodified root, in others to a modified root.
(a) The characteristic is added to the unmodified roots of some primary verbs (chiefly roots ending in a consonant); but it is principally used in forming the bases of secondary verbs (causals, denominatives), and may be added to the aorist stems of most Persian verbs to form secondary bases. The characteristic is reduced in Persian to $\bar{\imath}$, and appears in the inf. stem alone; the aorist stem having the form of the root or base ; as inf. stem pursi- (for parsi-, ข. §75, b) $=$ O.P. frasaya- (rt. fras). Examples are-

| Roor | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | بֹخشيدن bakhshī-dan 'to give, bestow' <br> نُرسيدن pursi-dan ' to ask' <br> رسيدن rasī-dan 'to arrive' <br> كشيدن kashī-dan 'to draw' <br> beلبيدن talabī-dan 'to seek' <br> فهـهيدن fahmī-dan 'to understand' |  <br> purs- <br> w) ras- <br> Kash- <br> talab- <br> © fahm- |

(b) For the most part, however, the primitive roots of this class end in $u$, and this vowel is strengthened (i.e. $u$ becomes $\bar{a} u$ ) before the characteristic is joined to the root to form the stem of the O.P. pres. indicative, so that the stem ends in - $\bar{v} v a y a-$ (e.g. rt. sru: O.P. pres. indic. stem srāvaya-): - $\bar{a} v a y a-$, in the aorist stem of the Persian, is reduced to $-\bar{a} y$-. The infinitive stem comes immediately from the root, the vowel of which is lengthened; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $s u+$ prefix $\bar{a}$ $s u+\ldots a l i$ | T $\bar{a}-s \bar{u}-d a n$ 'to rest' <br>  | जاس T àsãy- <br>  ى $f$ fizäy- |
| $\begin{array}{ll} l u+ & \bar{a} \\ d u+ & \text { ham } \end{array}$ | T T $\bar{a}$-l $\bar{u}$-dan 'to soil', \&c. <br> اندودن $a n-d \bar{u}-d a n$ 'to incrustate, to coat, gild, | ज $\$ T $\bar{a} l a y-$ <br>  |
| $l u+\text { prefixes }$ $\text { pati and } \bar{a}$ | چالودن $p \bar{a}-l \bar{u}-d a n$ 'to filter' <br>  | pā̀āyخشاى Khashāy-0 khushäy |
| $d u+$ prefix $u z$ | , |  |
| stu | فسِّودن |  |
| sru | \% سُرودن surūdan 'to sing' | سرایى sirāy- |

Note. To the above may be added the following verbs, although they do not come under the rule. They are formed by false analogy to verbs like فرمودن farmüdan (aor. stem فرما: see next para.). The proper forms of the first and second are باليدن and : بخشيدن :-

| Roor | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bakhsh | ¢بخشود. bakhshüdan 'to give, forgive' | , بخشاى bakhshāy- |
| bard | bālūdan 'to grow', \&c. <br> (the conjunct $r d$ becoming $l$ ) | - بالاى bālāy- |
| rup | , بودن rubūdan 'to carry off' | , rubāy- |

## 3）Verbs with the Charcuteristic ya

§78．In these verbs the primitive root ends in $\alpha$ ，or a base ending in $a$ is substituted for the root in the O．P．pres．indicative． The characteristic is joined to the root，or to the substituted base （as，root zan；substituted base $z \bar{a}$ ；whence $z \bar{a} y a-$ ，the stem of the O．P．pres．indic．）．The infin．stem comes immediately from the root， or from the substituted base；but the aorist stem presents the root （or the base）with the characteristic added，the final $a$ being dropped （as $z \bar{a} y$－for $z \bar{a} y a-$ ）．The final $\bar{a}$ of the primitive root is changed in some Persian verbs（chiefly those derived from the root $m \bar{a}$ ）to $\bar{u}$ （in analogy with the verbs under 2），the aorist stems of which also end in $-\bar{a} y$－．Thus two classes arise－a），verbs in which the vowel $\bar{a}$ of the root is preserved in the infin．stem；and $\beta$ ），verbs in which the $\bar{a}$ of the root is changed to $\bar{u}$ ；e．g．

| Root or Base | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a）$m \bar{a}+p^{\text {prefix }} \bar{a}$ | Uآمآ $\bar{a}-m \bar{a}-d a n ~ ' t o ~ p r e-~$ pare＇ | ज ${ }^{\text {T }}$ a $\overline{m a ̄} y$－ |
| $z \bar{a}($ root $z a n)$ |  | \％$z \bar{a} y$－ |
| $g \bar{a}$ |  |  |
| $s h \bar{a}+$ prefix $v i$ | ＇gu－shā－dan＇to open＇ $\text { (P. } g u=\mathrm{Ph} . v i=\text { O.P. } v i \text { ) }$ | \％\％ gushāy－ |
| B）$m \bar{a}+\operatorname{prefix} \bar{a}$ $m \bar{a}+$ prefixes $\bar{a}$ and $u z$ |  | ज T Tāmā－ <br>  |
| ，＋prefix pati | שָּ | ¢paimāy |
| ，＋，fra | فرمودن far－mū－dan＇to order＇ | فر0．farmāy |
| $s h \bar{a}+\quad v i$ | F\％ |  |
| $m \bar{a}+\ldots n i$ | نمودن nu－mū－dan＇to show， to appear＇ <br> （Phl，nimūtan） | ज⿴囗⿰丨丨⿹勹冫 |

## 4) Reduplicated Verbs

§79. Traces of reduplication in Persian verbs are found in the aorist stems that come from the O.P. roots $d \bar{\alpha}$ ' to give, to place', and st $\bar{a}$ 'to stand'. The reduplicative syllable of the first of these is $d a$; of the second, $i$. The stem of the O.P. pres. indic. is, in the one case, dad- $a-$; in the other, ist- $a$-, by fusion of the reduplicative syllable with the root. The conjunct st of the root st $\bar{a}$ is, in the Persian infinitive, broken up into istā, by the employment of a prosthetic $i(\underline{l})$; or, into sit $\bar{a}$, by the insertion of $i(v . \S 3, \mathrm{a})$.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d \bar{a}$ 'to give' (S. $d \bar{a}$ ) | Uادٌ da C -dan 'to give' | rدِ dih- (from Phl. dah $=$ O.P. $\quad d a d-a-$ by elision of medial $\alpha$ and substitution of $h$ ) |
| $d \bar{a}$ 'to place' (S. $d h \bar{a})+$ prefix $n i$ | نِهادن ni-hā-dan 'to put down' (for ni-dā-dun: medial $d$ being reduced to $h$ ) | ai- nih- (for ni-dad-a, by elision of the syllable $d a$ and reduction of the 2 nd medial $d$ to $h$ ) |
| $s t \bar{a}$ , , + pr. adi | $\left.\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{r} \text { istā-dan } \\ \text { استادن sitā-dan } \\ \text { ايستادن istā-dan } \\ \text { (archaic êstādan) } \end{array}\right.\right\} \text { 'to stand' }$ | إست ist- <br> sit- <br> ايست īst- (for êst-) |
| " + pr. fra | فِرِّا firistādan 'to send' | فرست frist |

Note 1. The stem of the secondary verb parast-iddan 'to worship', \&c., is a relic of the aorist stem of an old verb pari-sta-dan 'to serve'.

Note 2. 'أفتادن 'to fall', although it is not a reduplicated verb, forms its stems after the analogy of istädan. The root is inverted, and its vowel lengthened (i.e. pat becomes ptā ); e.g.

5) Verbs with the Characteristics nu and $\mathrm{n} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$
§80. These two classes of O.P. verbs may be noticed together; since, in Persian, each of the characteristics is reduced to $n$, and incorporated with the aorist stem (e.g. the aorist stem of $\bar{a} f a r \bar{d} d a n$ is $\bar{a} f a r \bar{i} n-=$ O.P. äfrī-na-; and the aorist stem of kardan is kun-= O.P. ku-nau-). The base $k u$ - is the O.P. reduction of the primitive base kr. ${ }^{1}$ The root-vowels $i, u$, are lengthened in Persian; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $c h i+\operatorname{prefix} \bar{a}$ |  | - Tàjìn- <br>  آريّ |
| $f r \bar{a}+, \quad \bar{a}$ | آ $\overline{\text { آفريدند }}$ a $f a r i$-dan 'to create' |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { chi }+ \text { "ham } \\ & \text { chi } \end{aligned}$ | بكيدن anjī-dan 'to crumble <br> خبی chī-dan 'to gather' | جیی chīn- |
| $k r \imath ̄$ | خريدن Khharī-dan 'to bay' | خرين kharin-: (but far more common is $\rightarrow$ khar-, as though from khar- $\bar{\imath}$-dan) |
| $s t \bar{a}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { sitā-dan } \\ \text { يتادن sita-dan } \\ \text { ستدن ista-dan } \\ \text { استدن }\end{array}\right\}$ ' to take, <br> (sita- by lightening of sitā-) | sitān(whence the verb sitāndan) |
| $k a r$ | كردن kar-dan 'to do, make' | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'ك kun- (= } \\ & \text { O.P. kunau-) } \end{aligned}$ |
| $c h i+$ prefix $v i$ | ن.je's gu-zz-dan 'to choose' (medial ch reduced to $j$, and thence to $z$ ) <br> شنودن shunū-dan shinū-dan | guzin- |
| sru |  | يشنَو shinau- <br> (shinav: O.P. <br> su-nau-; cf. S. <br> sr-no-) |

${ }^{1}$ A similar reduction of the vowel $g$ to $u$ is found in Prākrit and Hindì; e.g. H. $m u^{\prime} \bar{a}$ 'dead ' $=$ Prk. $m u^{\prime} a^{\prime} \bar{o}=$ S. $m r t a+k a$.

Note. In the last three verbs the characteristic ( $n u$ ) of the class appears, not only in the aor. stem, but also in the infinitive. The stem su-nau- of the O.P. is, in the first verb, reduced to shu-nū- (as bau to $b \bar{u}$ in the aor. of bu$d a n$ ), and in the third, nau (nav-) becomes nuf- (cf. raf-tan, rav-). The vowel $u$ of the O.P. base su-nau- is the reduction of the primitive $r$ of sr, like $k u$ - from $k r$ in the verb kardan. T 'to fill, stuff' (a word of doubtful origin) has for its aor. stem


Rem. The $n$ of dann-, the stem of the verbs dan-istan (§89) and dān- $\overline{-}$-dan 'to know', is the reduction of the characteristic $n \bar{a}$, of the O.P.
6) Verbs with the Characteristic ta
§ 81. In the primitive language the forms in $t a$ are denominative. In Persian verbs the characteristic appears in the aor. stem as $t$; e.g.

| Roor | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hrap | خفت Kluuf-tan 'to sleep' (rad. $p$ changes to $f$ before $t$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (= prim. Whap-ta-) } \\ & \text { خف khe } \end{aligned}$ |
| sup | \% سفتن suftan 'to pierce', \&c. | سفت suft- |
| skap |  | shikift-- |
| $g u p+$ prefix $n i$ | نزهتنت ni-huf-tan 'to hide' (medial $g$ of ni-gup- is first changed to $g h$, and the $g$ is then elided) | نهفت nihuft- |

Note 1. From the primitive hvap comes an enlarged base hvafs-, from which is derived (the Phl. hvafsī-tan, and) the Persian خسپيدن khuspīdan 'to sleep'; the aorist stem of which is خس khusp-. From the same root hvap is derived the noun hvap-na 'sleep'; from which comes the Persian خواب khhäb $\bar{\imath}$-dan 'to sleep'; aorist stem خواب are sometimes erroneously said to be the aorist stems of خُفْتُ. They are, as a matter of fact, substituted for the aorist خفت to avoid the confounding of that tense with the past.

Note 2. Besides the infinitive سُفتّ there is a form سنبيدن sumbīdan 'to pierce'; aorist stem sumb-. The stem of this verb is probably derived from a primitive sump-, or sumf-, enlarged from sup. To avoid confusion with the past tense of سنب ,سفتن is substituted for سer in the aorist of that verb.

## Verbs with double roots

§ 82. In two verbs the infinitive and aorist stems are, in each case, derived from totally distinct roots ; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Root | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gam + prefix $\bar{a}$ | -T To-ma-dan 'to come' | $i+$ prefix $\bar{a}$ | ज़ ày- (= prim. $\bar{a} \cdot a y a-$ ) |
| $d \bar{\imath}$ | ديدن dì-dan 'to see' | vain | بِ bīn- |

In forming the verb $\bar{a} m a d a n$, the root is first inverted (i.e. āgambecomes $\bar{g} g m a-$ ), and the $g$ is then elided.
C. Verbs which Change the Final Consonants of their Roots
§83. This class comprises those verbs which owe the apparent irregularity of their stems to the operation of certain phonetic laws; or, in other words, verbs whose roots are altered phonetically in the stems according to the final radical consonant; e.g. in contact with the $t$ of the inf. ending-radical $c h, j$, or $z$ is changed to $k h$; radical $b$ or $p$, to $f$; radical $t$ or $d$, to $s$; radical $h$, to $s$; and radical $s$ remains unaltered. And before the initial vowel of the aor. endings, the same radical letters become respectively, $z ; b$ or $v ; d$ or $y ; h ; h$.

1) Verbs from roots ending in ch, $j$, or $z$
§84. The root-vowel is, in most cases, strengthened in the stems (e.g. a becomes $\bar{a} ; i$ becomes $\bar{e} ; u$ becomes $\bar{o}$ ). Final radical ch or $j$, is changed to $k h$ in the infinitive, and to $z$ in the aorist stem; e.g.

| Rоот | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $r a j+$ prefix $a b i$ |  | j) ${ }^{\text {\| }}$ afrā$\tilde{z}-$ |
| ruch + " " | وفر afrūkhtan $\}$ 'to kindle' | jورف: afrūz(for afrōz-) |
|  | فروختّ furūkhtan <br> (archaic afrökhtan; furōkhtan) | زور furūz(for furōz-) |
| much + , $\bar{a}$ | آموختن. àmükhtan ' to teach', \&c. (archaic āmōkhtan) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { jơ } \bar{a} m u \overline{z-} \\ & (\text { for } \bar{a} m \bar{z} z-) \end{aligned}$ |
| $\text { tach }+,, \text { ham }$ | . | jluil andāz- |
| tuch + , | اندوختن andūkhtan 'to collect' (archaic andökhtan) | jونl andūz- <br> (for andōz-) |

Verbs with the Characteristic ch, j , or z

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $v i j+$ prefix ham |  (archaic angēkhtan: radical vi being changed to $g i$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (for angēzz-) } \\ & \text { (for anz } \end{aligned}$ |
| " + " $\bar{a}$ | vinig Taviluhtan 'to suspend' (archaic āvēkhtan) |  <br> (for $\bar{a} v e ̄ z-$ ) |
| baj | b bākhtan 'to play' | ¢ ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ bāz- |
| vij | بيختن bīkhtan 'to sift' (archaic bēkhtan) | $\begin{aligned} & j, ~ b \bar{\imath} z- \\ & \text { (for bēz-) } \end{aligned}$ |
| pach |  change of root-vowel, $v . \S 75, \mathrm{~b}$ ) | ز paz- |
| tach + prefix para | , par-dākh-tan 'to empty, to finish', \&c. | 仿 pardāz- |
| rich + prefix ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ati | : (archaic parhēkhtan) | parhīz(for parhēz-) |
| tach |  |  |
| tuch | توختى tūlkh-tan 'to pay' (archaic tōkhtan) | $\begin{gathered} j \text { g } t \bar{u} z- \\ (t \bar{t} z-) \end{gathered}$ |
| $d u z$ | (aūkh-tan 'to sew' (archaic dōkhtan) | $\begin{gathered} \text { دو } \frac{d \bar{u} z-}{(d \bar{o} z-)} \end{gathered}$ |
| rich |  (archaic rēkhtan) | $\underset{(r \bar{r} z-)}{j}$ |
| sach | ساختن sākh-tan 'to make', \&c. sipūlh-tan 'to poke, thrust', \&c. (archaic sipökhtan) | j $s \bar{a} z-$ <br> سبوز sipüz-(siрӧz-) |
| such | sū̄kh-tan 'to burn' <br> (archaic sōkhtan) | $\underset{(s \bar{z} z-)}{ }$ |
| $t a c h+$ prefix $v i$ | . | j\|دً) gudāz- |
| $\text { rich }+ \text {," " }$ |  (archaic gurëhhtan) | ; ${ }^{j}$ gurīz-(gurēz-) |
| miz | © mīkhtan 'to make water' (archaic mëkhtan) | $\underset{(m \bar{z} z-)}{{ }_{j}^{j}}$ |
| $v a c h+$ prefix $n i$ |  | نواز nivāz- |

Note 1. The inf. afrädhtan 'to raise', also takes the form افراشتن afrāshtan, which is probably a denominative from افراز afräz-, the $z$ changing to sh before $t$.

Note 2. The aorist stem of the verb بيخذت 'to twist' is (archaic pēch); whence the secondary (and more common) (N) $p_{\bar{n} c h-\bar{i}-d a n ~(a r c h a i c ~ p e ̄ c h i ̄ d a n) . ~}^{\text {and }}$

Note 3. نشاخنّ nishäzlhtan (aor. stem نشان) is an anomalous form of نشاستن (v. § 86, (b)).

Note 4. A few roots which have $s$ or $s h$ for their final consonant, are treated like roots ending in ch or $j$; as are also one or two roots ending in $c h$ or $g$, with $s h$ added to them; but the $s h$ only appears in the aor. stem; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mis + prefix $\bar{a}$ | T'T àmīzhtan 'to mix' (archaic äméchhtan) |  |
| $d u \underline{k h}(s h)$ for $d u g(s h)$ | دوختن dūkhtan 'to milk' (archaic dōkhtan) | dūsh- (for d $\bar{s} h-$ ), whence دوشيدن |
| $\underline{\text { khshnās }}$ | شناخْتن shināākhtan 'to know' <br> (radical khsh reduces to $s h$ ) | دون |
| valhh(sh)-(from vach) + prefix fra |  (archaic firōkh, furölh, \&c.) | figh firush- (for firōsh-); furūsh(for furōsh-) |
| mis + prefix $v i$ | F gumikhtan 'to mix' (archaic gumēkhtan) | ; ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ gumī~ (gumēz-) |

Note 5. The inf. stem of gusēhhtan), comes from the primitive base $v i+\delta_{0} k$ - (from $s r_{0} j$ ) of the root $\operatorname{sard}+v i$. The aorist stem is the same as that of the verb (v. § 88, (c)).

Note 6. The verb سختن 'to weigh' is a denominative from sanj ( $=$ sang 'a stone, a weight'), formed by elision of $n$ and change of $j$ to


A similar reduction of the conjunct $n j$ (from $n g$ ) to $\underline{k h}$ occurs in the infinitive stem of the following old verbs:

| Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: |
| alfaklu-tan 'to gain, acquire' <br>  | الفَ alfanj- <br> © ${ }_{\text {Tōhanj- (whence }}$ the secondary (آهنجيدن |
|  | فرهنج farhanj- (whence (;رهنجيدن |

2) Verbs from primitive roots ending in a labial ( $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}$ )
§85. Final $p$ or $b$ of the root changes in the infin. stem to $f$; and in the aorist stem to $b$ or $v$. The root-vowel is generally strengthened, especially in the aorist; e.g.

| Root or Stem | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\underline{k h s h u b+p r e f i x ~} \bar{a}$ |  (archaic āshöftan) | Tāshūb-(āshōb-) |
| tap | تإفتّ tāftan 'to burn', \&c. | رك |
| rap | رفتن raftan 'to go' | ,j rau- |
| rup | رفتّ ruftan 'to sweep' | $\underset{\text { (rôbb- }}{\text { reūb- }}$ |
| $t a p+\underset{(a b i-s h-t a p)}{\operatorname{prefix}} a b i$ |  | شتاب shitāb- |
| $r i p+$ prefix $a b i$ | فَريغتن frīztan ' to deceive' (archaic fireftan) | فريب firīb. ( $\mathrm{fr} \mathrm{r} \overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{b}-$ ) |
|  | كافتص kāflan 'to dig', \&e. (cf. shikāftan) | , l kāv- |
|  | كوفتن kiüftan 'to beat, pound' (archaic kōftan) | $\underset{(k \bar{o} b-)}{\int_{4} k \bar{u} b-}$ |
| gub- | Fguftan 'to say, tell' | जg $g u \bar{y} y$-(for goy-, for $g \bar{b} b-$, by elision of $b$, and insertion of euphonic $y$ ) |
| $\bar{\alpha}-y \bar{a} p-$ | $\underset{\mathbf{P}}{\text { يافتّن } y \text { āftan 'to get,obtain', \&c. } \mid ~}$ | ياب $\begin{aligned} & \text { ¢ } \\ & \text { ab- }\end{aligned}$ |

Note a. In the two following verbs (which are probably denominatives), $f$ appears in the aorist stem, as well as in the infinitive :

| Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: |
| . prim. skapa) | فكاف shikāf- |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { شكغتن } \text { شكفتن shikuftan } \text { shiküftan }\end{array}\right\}$ ' to flower; to bloom, (archaic shikōftan) (fr. skupa) | شكف shikufشكوف shikūf- (shiköf-) |

Note b. The verb شیفتي shikīftan (archaic shikēftan), 'to be patient', is a denominative from شكيب shikib (shikēb); whence the secondary شكيبـبدن.

Note c. The aorist stems of the verbs تهن are and irregular; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| grab | Jirif-tan 'to take' (Phl. graf-tan) | $\begin{gathered} \text { (Z. geurva-) } \end{gathered}$ |
| , + prefix pati | يذرفتّن pazī-ruf-tan 'to receive' <br> (Phl. pat-graftan, patī-raftan: <br> Pāzend padā-raftan) | ¢ $p$ ¢ |

 and for $\underset{\text {, }}{\text {, }}$, v. 80 .
3) Verbs formed from roots ending in a dental (d, nd)
§86. The letter $s$ before the inf. ending of a Persian verb ( $d \bar{a} n-i s t a n$, and the like, excepted) is, generally, either a radical letter, or comes from the change of a radical $d$ to $s$. It is the latter class which we shall notice here.

The final $d$ may appear in both the root and the stem of the O.P. pres. indic. of the primitive verb, without a preceding nasal; or the root may end in $d$, and the stem of the O.P. pres. indic. in $n d$; or both the root and the pres. indic. stem may end in nd. Hence the following three cases arise:
(a) When $d$ is the final letter of both the root and the O.P. pres. indic. stem, the Persian substitutes $s$ for $d$ in the infinitive, and $y$ for $d$ in the aorist stem, in which the root-vowel is strengthened; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $r \bar{a} d+$ prefix $\bar{a}$ | . $\overline{\text { T }} \bar{a}-r \bar{a} s$-tan 'to adorn' | ज1, $T \bar{a} r \bar{a} y-\quad$ (for $\bar{a} r a ̄ d-)$ |
| $"+\quad \text { pati }$ <br> yud |  | ज1, pairāyजg $j \bar{o} y$ - for yaud-) |
| rud | ,رستن rustan ' to grow ' | (s), rūy(archaic rōy-) |
| khshud | نُستُ shustan 'to wash' | شو shüy- |
|  |  | (archaic shōy-) |

Note. In the aor. stem of the verb خواستن 'to wish', $h$ is substituted for $d$; e.g. root hvad; infin. خواستن khāstan (for hvād-tan); aor. stem

(b) When the root ends in $d$, and the stem of the O.P. pres. indic. in $n d$, the $d$ of $n d$ is dropped in the aor. stem; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist 8tem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $s h a d+$ prefix $n i$ | نشستن ni-shas-tan 'to sit down' (for ni-shad-tan) | نشين nishīn(for rishīnd-) |
| shād- (causal stem of shad) | ( $n i$-shās-tan 'to seat' | نشان. nishān(for nishānd-), |
| + $n i$ |  | whence نشاندن |

(c) When both the root and the pres. indic. stem of the primitive verb end in $n d$, the nasal is dropped in the inf. stem of the Persian, and may, or may not, appear in the aorist ; e.g.

| Rоот | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| skand <br> band <br> , + prefix pat | shikastan 'to break' <br> بستن bastan 'to bind ' <br> Paivastan 'to attach', \&c. | . بند bandpaivand |

Rem. With شكستن is probably connected the inf. خستن 'to wound', which has no aorist, or any other form, except the past خm , and the

4) Verbs from roots ending in $s$ or sh
§87. If the final letter of the root is $s$ or $h$, the infinitive stem has $s$ and the aorist stem $h$ for its final letter; e.g.

| Root | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| yah kas- (as in kasu | $\begin{aligned} & \text { jas-tan 'to leap up' } \\ & \text { جستن rastan 'to become free' } \\ & \text { كاستن kāstan ' to diminish' } \end{aligned}$ | ج $\quad$ jah- <br> 8, rah- <br> ${ }_{8} 5 \mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a} h}$ |
| 'little ') | (with strengthening of root-vowel) |  |

Note a. In the following verbs, radical $s$, in some cases, changes to $s h$ before the infin. ending, and remains in the aorist stem. The rootvowel is generally strengthened.

| Rоот | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ris |  | , rīs(archaic ress-) |
| 7is | لشتن lish-tan 'to lick' (archaic leshtan) | ليسs(archaic lēs-) |
| pis + prefix $n i$ <br> (nipishta 'written') | $\left.\begin{array}{r}\text { or } n i \text {-vish-tan }\end{array}\right\}$ ' to write ' | نويس nuvis- (old nuvēs-), or nivīs- |

Note b. The verb خاستن 'to rise ', has, in the aorist stem, $s$ weakened
 (archaic khēz = prim. hvais-).
5) Verbs from stems ending in -rsh, -rt, or -rd
§ 88. $S h$ in the infin. stems of Persian verbs may come (as is seen from the preceding paragraph) from the contact of a radical $s$ with the $t$ of the infin. ending. In a few verbs moreover, it is derived from final sh in the primitive root; e.g. root kush; infin. kushtan 'to kill'; aor. stem kush-. But the verbs with which we are concerned here are those in which the infin. and aor. stems are derived from primitive stems ending in $-r s h$, $-r t$, or $-r d$.
(a) Stems in -RSH.-The sh may be a determinative letter added to a primitive root in $r$ (i.e. $r(s h)$ ); or it may be a radical conjunct ( $r s h$ ). In both cases, the $r s h$ is reduced in the infin. stem to $s h$, and in the aor. stem to $r$; and the root-vowel is lengthened; e.g.

| Prim. Stem | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{par}(\mathrm{sh})+$ prefix $h a m$ | انْباشٌن am-bāsh-tan 'to fill' | , إبا $a m b \overline{a r} r$ - |
| $k a r(s h)+$ prefix ham |  | ا |
| $d a r(s h)$ | داشتن dāsh-tan 'to have, possess' | دار dār - |
| karsh-(from prim. $k r s h)$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { كاششتن kiāsh-tan } \\ \text { كسشتن kish-tan } \end{array}\right\} \text { 'to till', \&c. }$ | , $5 \mathrm{k} \times \bar{a} x-$ |
| $\operatorname{tar}(\mathrm{sh})+$ prefix $v i$ | كَّشتن gu-zash-tan ' to go by, to pass ' | ¢ ${ }^{\text {\% }}$ guzar- |
| $\begin{gathered} t \bar{a} r(s h)+\text { prefix } \\ \text { (causal) } \end{gathered}$ |  (trans.) | , <br> (whence كَاردن كا |
| $m a r(s h)+$ prefix $v i$ |  | , $\overline{\mathrm{F}}$ gumār- |
| $k a r s h+$ prefix $n i$ | - | 康 nigār- |
|  | paint', \&c. |  |

Note 1. The verb هنداشت 'to suppose' (aor. stem خندار) is a contraction of $p a-\bar{i} n-d \bar{\alpha} s h t a n ~ ' t o ~ h o l d ~ f o r ~ t h i s ' . ~$

Note 2. The infin. stem of is the reduction of the primitive lersh, the vowel $r$ being, in this case, reduced to $i$.
(b) Stems in -rt.-The conjunct $r t$ is reduced to $s h$ in the infin. stem, and to $r d$ in the aorist stem; e.g.

| Prim. Stem | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vart- |  | gard- |
| "+prefix $n i$ | 'وa-vash-tan 'to fold up' | ¢ورد navard- |

(c) Stems in -RD. - The conjunct $r d$ is reduced to $s h($ or $s$ ) in the infin. stem, and to $l$ in the aorist stem ; e.g.

| Prim．Stem | Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sard－＋prefix $v i$ | Vgu－sis－tan＇to break，sever （for gusastan，sh becoming 8 ） | گnusit－ |
| hard | هشُتن hish－tan＇to leave，let alone＇ | do hil－ |
|  | （through Phl．hishtan） |  |

Verbs with the infinitive ending－is－tan（－as－tan）
§ 89．The ending－is－tan（ $-a s-\tan$ ）of the infinitive of these verbs is itself the infnitive of the primitive verb $a h$＇to be＇$(v$ ．Darmesteter＇s Etudes Iraniennes，§ 173）．The stem of the aorist is the same as that of the infinitive．The following are examples ：－

| Infinitive | Aorist Stem |
| :---: | :---: |
| بايستن $b \bar{a} y$－istan＇to be necessary＇ <br> （Phl．apāy－istan） | 侕 bāy－ |
| پإيستن pāy－istan＇to endure，tarry＇ (pāy = O.P. pādla' foot') | 此 $p \bar{a} y$－ |
| توالدستن tavān－istan＇to be able＂ <br> （from tavān＇power＇） | توان tavān－ |
| خايستن khāy－istan＇to eat＇ <br> dān－istan＇to know＇ <br> $(d \bar{a} n=$ O．P．$d \bar{a}-n \bar{a}$, rt．$d \bar{a})$ | خإی khāy－ دان dān－ |
| زيستن $z \bar{i}$－stan＇to live＇ <br> （Phl．ziv－astan，from prim．jīra＇life＇） | （\％ziy－ |
| شايستن shāy－istan＇to be fitting＇，\＆c． gir－istan gir－istan ＇to weep， <br> （Phl．grīstan，from prim．gari（ $\left.\mathrm{gr}_{6}-\right)$ ） | شاى shāy－ <br> ज，giry－ |
| مانستّ $m \bar{a} n$－istan＇to be like，to resemble＇ | －mān－ |
|  （prefix $n i+\mathrm{rt}$ ．kar－） | 䓞 nigar－ |
| （رستن yār－astan）＇to be able，to be capable of＇ <br>  | يار yār- $\text { , } \bar{a} r-$ |

## APPENDIX II

## Names of the Lunar Months

Ar the present day the Muhammadan Calendar is in use in Persia. The names of the lunar months are as follows:


These months are made to consist of 30 and 29 days alternately; but in a period of 30 years, it is found necessary to intercalate the last month eleven times, so as to be reckoned 30 days instead of 29.

## Days of the Week

|  | Persian | Arabic |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sunday | يَشْنْبهـ | يَوْ اْْ | First | day |
| Monday | دو شْنِّه | يؤمٌ | Second | " |
| Tuesday | سِ. |  | Third | " |
| Wednesday | \%هار شها |  | Fourth | " |
| Thursday |  |  | Fifth | " |
| Friday | آدينّ |  | Day of as | ssembly |
| Saturday | شـبنـ |  | Sabbath- | -day |

To find the year of the Christian era corresponding to the Muhammadan year a calculation is necessary as the latter era is reckoned from the date of the flight of Muhammad from Mecca to Medina on July 15, 622. This flight is called in Arabic 8 s 8 hijra, and the years reckoned from it are known as hijrī. The months being lunar, the years bear no constant relation to the
corresponding years of the Christian era, but by the use of the subjoined formulae the years of each era may be converted roughly into the corresponding years of the other. In the formulae $\boldsymbol{H}$ is the Hijri , and c the Christian year.
(a) $\boldsymbol{\text { ( }} \times \cdot 97+621 \cdot 54=\mathrm{c}$.
(b) $\frac{\mathbf{c}-621.54}{.97}=\mathrm{H}$.
e.g. A.D. $1910=$ A.H. $1328-9$.

## The Persian Solar Months



These months consisted of thirty days each, five days being added to the last month to make up the 365 days, , leap-year ( being reckoned every fourth year to furnish an additional day.

Its New Year's day 'Naurūz' is a festival and begins the official year. It corresponds to the vernal equinox.

The Jalàncī Era

This era was instituted in A.D. 1079 by the celebrated Seljūq king Malik Shāh, and dates from the Naurūz of that year.

# PART II-SYNTAX 

BY
G. S. A. RANKING


## INTRODUCTION

§1. Every sentence consists of two parts, the subject and the Predicate.

The Subject is called by Persian grammarians lư mubtad $\bar{a}$, or win lime musnad ilaihi, and is the word or group of words about which some statement is made in the Predicate, which in turn is called K- khabar or musnad, and is that which is said about the Subject.

As a general rule the Subject stands first in the sentence, for example:-

> مَلِك ُعُرسيد malik pursīd 'the king asked'.

Here ${ }^{\circ}$ or is the Subject and
Sometimes both Subject and Predicate are contained in a single word, the Subject being expressed in the verb-ending, e.g.

Here, then, the Predicate consists of a Verb alone, but it may assume other forms.
§ 2. The Predicate may consist of a Verb and $\pm$ Predicate Adjective or Predicate Noun referring to the Subject:-
 فريدون پادشاه بود Farīdūn pādshāh būd 'Farīdūn was king'.
§ 3. The Predicate may consist of a Verb and an Object:-
 window'.
§4. The Predicate may consist of a Verb and two Objects:اورا يلمـ تِير آموخت
§ 5. The Predicate may consist of a Verb, an Object, and a Predicate Adjective or Predicate Noun referring to the Object:qulla'i koüh maljā̄-i-khud sākhhtand 'they made the top of the hill their place of refuge'.
部 pādshāh vazīr rā ma'zūl kard'the king deposed the vazir'.
§ 6. A Noun, Adjective or Adverb may be replaced in a sentence by other parts of speech singly, or by a group of words doing the work of a single part of speech. Such a substituted word or group of words is called an Equivalent (Noun-equivalent, Adjective-equivalent, or Adverb-equivalent).
§ 7. A Noun-equivalent may be-
(1) A Pronoun :-
man badbakht hastam vai shumā nīkbakht 'I am unfortunate and you are fortunate'.
(2) A Verb-Noun, including the Infinitive jas masdar, and the

 were better than the affliction of mankind'.
(3) An Adjective:-

عاقلإِ 'كفته اند
 less (man) is honoured and the wise (man) despised '.
(4) A Verb-adjective or Participial Adjective-noun:زويتده يابنده jūyanda yābanda 'he who seeks finds'.
Thkhir gurgzāda gurg shavad 'the wolf-born eventually becomes a wolf'.
(5) A Clause (in a Complex Sentence, § 10):-in sentences where the Subject is introduced in English by the Formal Subject, it :-
نيست ma'lūm nīst 'it is not known'.

(6). A word, or group of words quoted:-

مرد مذر است mard muzakkar ast. The word mard is Masculine.
dar lughat-i-'Arab̄̄ shams mu'annaş musمستعمل است taimal ast. In Arabic the word shams is used as a Feminine.
§ 8. An Adjective-equivalent may be-
(1) A Verb-adjective:-
xien palang-i-khufla ' a sleeping leopard'.
 before the fierce blast.'
(2) A Noun in apposition, with or without the izāfat, as the case may be :-

No Luqmān-i-hakīm 'Luqmān the sage'.
, رود $R$ فرات $R \bar{u} d-i-$-furāt 'the river Euphrates'.
ايران زمين ITrān zamīn 'the land of ITrān'.
رور هرى Harī rūd 'the river of Herat (Harī)'.
The last two examples illustrate the inverted construction (see Part I).
(3) The Genitive Case expressed by the $i z \bar{a} a f a t:-$ شيراز فارس Shīrāz-i-Fārss 'Shīrāz in Fārs'. Qاهرهُ هَ $Q$ Qāhira-i-Maṣr 'Cairo in Egypt'.
.Mahmūdd-i-Subuktitigīn 'Maḥmūd son of Subuktigīn'.
(4) An Oblique Case with a Preposition :-
${ }^{1}$, بر

, ريح از شهال rîh az shimäl 'a wind from the north'.
(5) A Clause in a Complex Sentence (§ 10):-

فلانرا كم حبس فرمودهُ fulānrā ki habs farmūdaй' so-and-so whom thou hast imprisoned '.
§ 9. An Adverb-equivalent may be-
(1) An Oblique Case :-

Khāna biravam 'I will go home'.
(بيست فرسّخ راء رفتند leagues'.
روز يكشنبه مُرد rūz-i-yalc shamba murd 'he died on Sunday'.
Of this nature are the Arabic Adverb-equivalents 1 I', فو fauran, \&c.
(2) An Adjective:-

ر sakht bīmär 'exceedingly ill'.
تيز رفت tz̄z raft 'it went swiftly'.
(3) An Oblique Case with a Preposition:-

در خُفيّ گغفت dar khufiya guft 'he said secretly'.
بر bar malä 'openly'.

This construction is frequently found in Arabic phrases:a<acil fil jumla 'in short-briefly'. خ بآلآ bill alkhir 'eventually'.
(4) A Clause in a Complex Sentence (§ 10):
© chandānki wuqū̆f yäftand 'as soon as they became aware $\qquad$ $\therefore$
§10. The Simple and the Complex Sentence. A sentence which contains only one group of words with a Subject and a Predicate is


A sentence which contains a principal group and a subordinate group, each having a Subject and a Predicate of its own is called Complex ( jumla-i-muralkab) and each of the groups is called a Clause. Example :-
$\bar{I} n \bar{a} n$ asp ast |ki birādar-i-shumã baman dād
'This is the horse which your brother gave me'.
A Sentence is called in Persian grammar 0 jumla. Each individual word having a specific meaning of its own is called 0 kalima, while an expression made up of two or more kalima and conveying an intelligible meaning is called p kaläm. In sentences such as the following, خخا Khudâ wähid ast 'God is One'; each of the individual words is a kalima, taken together they constitute a kalām, the verbal element ast being called the كلمهُ رابطُهُ مُمبته kalima-i-rābita-i-musbita or 'the word which connects and affirms'. With finite verbs this rābita or 'copula' is not required:-

> اسِ ميدَوَد 1 asp mī davad 'the horse runs'.
> شير ميغرّريدر shīr mī ghurrid 'the lion was roaring'.
§ 11. Classification of the Sentence (x) (جُ) in Persian :-

(1) جُ جْلءُ إسميّه jumla-i-ismīya 'the "ism" Sentence, or "Noun" Sentence'.
Sentences of which the Subject is a Substantive:يوسْ 'Yūsuf kitāb mī-khhwānad'Yūsuf is reading a book'. asp rū-i-maidān mīdavad 'the horse is galloping on the plain'.

Sentences in which the Verb stands first, as-
برداشتند اورا و در آب افگگندند bardāshtand ūrā va dar äb afgandand 'they took him up and threw him into the water'.
Divisions (1) and (2) are again subdivided in the following way :-
(a) جملهُ خبرِّهِ jumla-i-khabarīyya' 'the sentence which embodies a statement, the truth or falsehood of which can be proved by the nature of the case'.
 a proposition whose truth or falsity cannot be proved from its inherent quality'.
Of this kind are Imperatives ( أُم). Prohibitions ( $\underset{\sim}{ } \mathbf{r}^{3}$ ). The Past Optative Tense as كاشَ عاليم شُدمى kāsh ‘ālim shudam̄̀. Oaths (
 Bargaining (ت) بشش ميفروشم ; mu'āmalāt) 'as when a seller says'
 ram, i.e. 'I will sell it for six', and, 'I will buy it for five'.
(3) جهالُ كُرفيّه jumla-i-zarfiyya 'a Prepositional Sentence':باللاى بام رفتم بأم تُوُى صَندووَ گذاردم tūyi ṣandüq guzärdam 'I left it in the box'.
 برايد بكوبم
[N.B. In such sentences the protasis is called subر شر $\underset{\mathrm{o}}{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{juzv-i-}$

 S ki rahmat bar ān khāk bād 'may blessings light upon that land '.
[N.B. The $\delta$ is called ك $k \bar{a} f-i-d u{ }^{\prime} \bar{a}$, in such sentences.]

كربها ببغشاى بر الـال Karīmā, bibakhshāe bar hāl-i-mäa 'Oh merciful One! have pity on our condition'.
B. B $^{2}$. jumla-i-murakkab 'the Complex Sentence' (§ 10 ).

The Complex Sentence has three principal divisions:-

the clauses are connected by Conjunctions ( ' $a \pm f$ ) :-
 نشُست $n$ nishast 'he entered the room and sat upon $\mathbb{m}$ chair'.
(2) جهلُ jumla-i-natīja 'Consequence Sentence':thu 'uzvī bidard āvarad rūzgār digar 'užvhā rā namānad qarār 'when time afflicts one member' [as a consequence] ' the other members have no rest'.
 هـهُ مردمان دور از جانـر شما بَّرَضـ طاعون گرفتـار اند bi maraz-i-t-tāūn giriftär and 'everyone (may it be far from thy life) is afflicted with the plague').
§ 12. Co-ordination. Two or more Sentences, Clauses, Phrases or single words linked together by Conjunctions are called Co-ordinate ( $§ 11, \mathrm{~B}(1)$ ), and the Conjunctions which link them together are called Coordinating Conjunctions :-

$$
\therefore-\frac{\mathrm{c}}{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{chi-chi} \text { 'both-and'; 'whether-or' : - }
$$

چ
هیه برتخت هُردن ix بر روى chi bar takht murdan chi bar rū-i khhäk © إخ 'what matters it whether one dies on the throne, or on the bare ground'!
This same construction is used to express antithesis:-
 و و ix تو با اين قوّس ولشكر my weakness and loneliness compared with thee with this grandeur and army'!
-

ه لشكر بركّ دارد anything in the treasury, nor has my army provisions'.
So also, $\quad$. $\quad$ خ خ خ $\quad$ خhwāh—khwāh 'either-or'.
ي - $\quad$ ي $y \bar{a}-y \bar{a}$ 'either-or'.
$p^{\infty}$ - $p^{\infty}$ ham-ham 'both-and':

And in poetry, $\bar{\pi}$ - -5 agar -gar 'whether-or':-
خhhunake ann kazū nīkū̄̄̀ yādgār bimānad agar banda gar shahryär ' happy is he of whom goodnessremainsas a memorial, whether he be slave or sovereign'.
A Clause introduced by $\leqslant k i$ (called $k \bar{a} f-i-d u^{\circ} \bar{a}$ ) may be equivalent to a Coordinate Sentence :-
آر بميرد Sc خدا نكناد خيلى يرِيشان خواهيم شد
' If he should die, which God forbid, we shall be exceedingly distressed' [cf. Gk. on $\mu \eta \grave{\eta}^{\prime} \gamma^{\prime}$ vouto].
§13. The two parts of Syntax. Syntax has to answer two questions:-

1. How are meanings expressed in Sentences and parts of Sentences? This is answered in Sentence Construction (§§ 14-65).
2. What are the various uses of the forms of words? This is dealt with in Meanings of Forms ( $\$ \S 66-109$ ).

## SYNTAX

## PART I. SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION

## THE SUBJECT

§14. The Subject is either a Noun or a Noun-equivalent (§ 7), and stands, if $\boxminus$ word, in the Nominative Case ( at the beginning of the sentence :-
موسلا عليه أْلَّلام دروِيش را دبد Mūsā, 'alaihis-salām darvīsh rā dīd 'Moses, on him be peace, saw a dervish'.
 دعآكوئى بجا آورد $d u^{\prime} \bar{a} g u^{-\quad} \bar{\imath}$ baj $\bar{a} \bar{a} w a r d$ 'another minister came forward and made the customary salutation'.

The Subject is not expressed by a separate word when it is sufficiently indicated by the Verb-ending :-
برويـم biravim 'let us go'.

The first two of the above expressions answer to the English 'they say', or the French on dit, the Subject (مردُم) understood being vague and indefinite.
N.B. This Indefinite Construction is very frequently employed in Persian, where in English we use a Passive Verb, as for example :-
 wall is built of brick'. Literally, 'they have built the wall of brick.'
The Syntax of the Impersonal Verbs is treated of in § 21. See also the , form of Verbal Adjective ( $\$ ई$ 102, 103).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ميگويند māgūyand 'they say'. } \\
& \text { بدانند bidānand 'let them know'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## THE PREDICATE

§ 15. Rules for the Agreement of the Verb with the Subject.
Rule. A Singular Subject takes a Verb in the Singular and a Plural Verb follows a Plural Subject when that is animate:-
pisar naira bizad va guft 'the boy shouted and said '.
مدبّران مشورت كردند mudabbirān mashwarat kardand' 'the ministers took counsel together'.
خلائقّ برو گذرند pass over them'.
, va sagān barū shāshand 'and dogs would micturate upon it'.
In the case of animals, however, a Plural Subject sometimes takes the verb in the Singular:-
${ }_{2}^{5}$ كنی Namī tavānistam dānistan ki gūsfandān az
ك chi kamtar mīshavad 'I could not divine میشود fewer'.
Rule. If the Subject (فاعِ) be Plural and inanimate, it will take a Singular Verb according to classical usage:-
بر دست او بر آ were accomplished by his hand'.
Obs. In the Persian of the present day, however, we find Plural Verbs used with Plural Subjects, even when the Subject is inani-mate-always provided it is not an Arabic Plural. Thus in the Diary of Nāsiviu-d-Dīn Shäh:-
. $\quad$ ba'ze favvāra hā bāhham buland $m \bar{\imath}$ shudand 'several fountains were playing at once'.
Rule. An Arabic broken Plural representing an inanimate Subject will invariably take a singular verb :-
الشبار اين باغ بارآورده است ashjār-i-i-inn bāghh bār āvarda ast 'the trees of this orchard are in fruit'.
Obs. In the Persian of the present day we occasionally find a Plural Personal Subject taking a Singular Verb:-
زan u mard-i-ziyād̄̄ paidā būd 'many men and women appeared '.

Rule．When the Subject is preceded by a Numeral Adjective in construction with it，classical usage permits either a Singular or a Plural Verb：－
（a）Verb in the Singular ：－
 ＇fifty men were wounded in that battle＇．
（b）Verb in the Plural ：－ زییاده از هغت هد هرد－زندانى بودنـا būdand＇there were more than 700 prisoners＇．
Obs．In modern usage the Plural Verb is more commonly preferred， as for example：－
دويست سيصد نغرسر موربها بسته در دست＇كرفتنه بودند two or three hundred persons holding in their hands bunches of flowers on sticks＇（Diary of Nāşiru－d－Dīn Shāh）．
N．B．It should be observed that the Noun preceded by the Numeral Adjective is invariably put in the Singular．

Rule．When the Numeral Adjective is used in the plural to denote large or collective numbers the Verb must be in the plural ：－

صدها مردم آمدند sadhā mardum àmadand＇hundreds of people came＇．
Rule．A Collective Noun in the Singular takes either a Singular or a Plural Verb ：－
（A）Verb in the Singular ：－
 have become undisciplined＇．
．bihar bām u dar mardum－i－shahr būd ＇the people of the city were on every roof and at every door＇．
مردُمر صَوْتَهَ مسلهان نيست mardum－i－şaumaia Musulmān nīst （Anwarī）＇the inmates of the monastic cell are not Muslims＇．
（B）Verb in the Plural：－
就 jamäat bitalab－i－man mi āyand ＇that company is coming in search of me＇．

خلقى بتَäّب بر ورَرد آمدند ' a whole people flocked round him in partisanship'.
 $b \bar{a} z$ gashtand 'the army of Māwarannahr went back to their homes.'
Rule. Two or more Personal Subjects, each of which is in the Singular, form a Compound Subject, which requires a Plural Verb, the person to be used varying according as the composite idea is 'we', 'you' or 'they':bl ign tu àūsì ba zāgh̄̄ dar ṣahn-i-bāghā farāham (Jāmī) rasīdand 'a peacock and a crow (they) met each other on the lawn of a garden'.
 ' I and one of my companions (we) wish '.
تو tu va mänind-i-tu agar dar khidmat bāshī̃d باشيل شايد and the likes of thee, whether you remain in service or not is immaterial'.
Rule. Two or more Impersonal (inanimate) Subjects take the Verb in the Singular:-
 'bitterness and happiness, the ugly and the beautiful passed away'.
 is a garden and a reservoir and a terrace'.
Rule. Where two Subjects in a Sentence occur with a Negative Verb which refers to both Subjects, the Verb is usually placed immediately after the first-mentioned subject agreeing with it, and is suppressed or understood after the second subject which is preceded by $\mathrm{o}^{1}$ :-
 I nor my brother went'.

[^18]
ونه زن 'neither a man nor a woman remained alive in the city'.
Rule. A Singular Subject may take a Plural Verb to indicate respect:-
اين مرد عiهـانرا دشه داشت Khudāe ta'āla ūrā dushman därand 'this man was an enemy to 'Uṣmān, God, He is exalted, is his enemy'.
The construction of the Verb following certain words requires separate consideration. These words are oo oar, $\%$, hark $k i$, hama, ie Ai ct hitch kudām 'neither of two'.

With these words the usage varies, sometimes a Singular Verb is employed and sometimes a Plural Verb:-
. with Singular Verb:-
هر كر با هولاد بازو تُتْكه كرد ever comes to grips with steelarmed one'.
Mar ki binām farïfta shavad binān andar canad 'whoever is taken in by a mere name will be in want of bread '.
ar ki ba mukhhālif-i-pādshāh dūst̄̄ ورزد varzad 'whoever makes friends with the enemy of the king'.
wi with Plural Verb:-
 gūyand 'of all whom I ask, none will tell me the truth'.
bishahr andarūn hat ki barnā budand 'all the young men in the city'.
ه with Singular Verb (this is the most common construction):-
oo خارى بتصبيكش زبانست Mar khhār̄̄̄ bitaşbīhash zabān ass 'every thorn is a tongue to utter his praise '.
هر روز عيد نيست Mar rūzz 'ind nīst 'every day is not a festival'.
 مكانى دارد dārad 'every speech has its own occasion and every point its place'.

ر with Plural Verb:-
 ' every rebellious person had this idea'.
*os with Singular Verb:-
hama keas pidaram rā shināsad 'every one knows my father'.

* with Plural Verb:-
oo hamakas margashaz Khudā mīkhwāhand 'every one prays to God that he may die'.
with Singular Verb:-
, va surv rāā inch azīnhāā̄st 'and none of these falls to the lot of the cypress '.
尺ャ with Plural Verb:-
. ${ }^{\text {barūu hench las chashm na gumāshtand }}$ 'no one fixed the eye of hope upon him'.
with Plural Verb:-
كـدام بیادشآه نرسيدند ' neither the one nor the other attained to kingly dignity'.

Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Subject (§ 2)
§ 16. The chief Verbs which take a Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Subject, are Verbs denoting to be, to become, to remain, to seem:-
chū mihrbān bāshad dūst 'when the Friend (God) is kind'.
© churn ra'īyyat lam shod 'when the subjects became few'.
جهان «ایدار زهاند not remain stable '.
شخَص_ منت حقير نود form appeared contemptible to thee'. sukhun-i-vai khwush a mad 'his words were acceptable'.
Khärijïyān bar tu sagān-i-jahunnum
and 'the Khārijīs are in thy sight dogs of hell '.

The Past Participle used as an Adjective to denote State or Condition occurs very frequently as a Predicate Adjective (Statical Participle, § 107, b):-
اندرْمبلس- خليفع واثق نشستها بود $b \bar{u} d$ ' he was seated in the assembly of the Khalifa Wāsiq'.
ز khasmān mi tarsam 'I said, I am a man who am a fugitive, and am in fear of my enemies '.

## THE OBJECT (§ 3)

§17. Verbs taking the Accusative (§ 69. Accusative Case).
The object is either a Noun or a Noun-equivalent, and as a general rule will stand in the Accusative Case (ى usually with the postposition 1 , ram denoting it:-

غلام را بدريا اذداختتند ghuläm ram bi daryāandākhtand 'they threw the slave into the sea'.
اورا در زندان كردند into prison'.
A hama rā giriftār kardand 'they arrested them all'.
Garda ra nāa karda shamurdam 'I have accounted (thy) deeds as though they had not been done'.
Rule. Sometimes the Postposition $1, r \bar{a}$ is omitted, when no doubt can arise as to the Object of the Sentence ( $\S 69$. Accusative Case) :-

روى شفاعت بر زمين 'rū̄-i-shifīāat bar zamīn nihād 'he placed the cheek of intercession upon the ground '.
 went on a little and stole a casket'.
Rule. Even where there can be no ambiguity the Postposition $1, r \bar{a}$ is used to denote the Object in the Accusative, for specification (

Qāzā jallād rā talabīd 'the Qāẓì sent for the executioner'.

Rule. In circumstances where the Object of the Sentence has already been mentioned the usual practice is to denote it in the Accusative Case by I, ra:-
吕 pādshāh darvīsh ra pish khwānd 'the king summoned to his presence the darvish (already mentioned)'.
Rule. After the Reflexive Pronoun in the Objective Case 1 , $r \bar{a}$ is added:-
 2,g' 'he was about to collect his army'.
خوريشتّن , khwīshtan ra dar abb andākhht 'he threw himself into the water'.
Rule. After the Enclitic Pronouns (Grammar, §59, b) when they denote the Accusative, I, ra cannot be used :-

> ديروز ديدشش dis rū̄z dīdamash 'I saw him yesterday'. معزولش كرد
N.B. It follows from this rule that wherever we find $1, r \bar{a}$ affixed to the Enclitic Pronoun, that Pronoun marks the Possessive Genitive case:-
Sc ترسد سرش را بكوبد بسنگی 'because it fears he will crush its head with a stone'.
Here ا, سرش
اينُ كُزْدو مرا نيست دشهنانم 'this good tidings is not for me, it is for my enemies'.
Here 1, marks the Dative Case and دشهنان ת = دشهنانم dush-manān-i-man.

## THE PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION

§ 18. The Passive Construction is comparatively rare in Persian, and is to be avoided as a general rule, by making the Passive Subject the Object of a Transitive Verb in the Active Voice, the Agent being Impersonal:-
برج زَقَا خانهر روى تِّهُ بلندى burj-i rasad hanna rū-i tapa-i-bulandī dj| ساخت sākhta and 'they have built the observatory tower on the top of a high hill', where in English we should say 'the tower is built upon the top of a high hill'.

## TWO OBJECTS

 ＇to teach＇，takes two Accusatives：one of the thing taught and the other of the person to whom it is taught：－
位 si sad va panjāh va nut bandash dar آomūkht＇he（the master）taught him thoroughly three hundred and fifty－ nine grips＇．
So also אردن dardan＇to make＇：－
Ki marā ‘āqibat nishāna nakard＇who has not in the end made me his target＇．
So also vوشیدن pūshīdan＇to clothe，put on＇：－
 body a red mantle＇．

Also چخنداشتش pindāshtan＇to consider＇，and similar Verbs：－
 on هֶنداشتها mints of ruby to be pieces of meat＇．
Rule．Verbs of teaching，clothing，making，considering，\＆c．，govern two Accusatives，one generally denoting a person，the other a thing， or one being the predicate of the other．
§ 20．Verbs taking an Accusative and a Dative．The Verb da dan＇to give＇，whether used alone in its original sense，as well as in some of its compounds，requires the thing given to be placed in the Accusative（of the Direct Object），while the person to whom it is given is put in the Dative（of the Indirect Object）either in the form of the dative with $1, r \bar{a}$ ，or expressed by the preposition s b bi．The latter is conveniently used in circumstances which necessi－ tate the use of $1, r \bar{a}$ to denote the Accusative（see $\S 17$ for the uses of $1, r \bar{a})$ ．
（ ا دشنام دادن گ，batik ra dushnām dādan girift＇he began to abuse（lit．to give abuse to） the king＇．
oo ht بغروختم و بدو دادم ＇I sold it all and gave it to him＇．
So also بخشيدن bakkhshīdan＇to bestow＇，and other verbs of similar meaning．

فرستادن firistädan 'to send', and its congeners.
With these Verbs of sending, the Dative is sometimes expressed by


paiy-i Yaiqūb paighām firistād 'he sent a message after Ya ${ }^{\circ} q u \bar{b}{ }^{\prime}$.
Tan ghulām rā ki bi Āząarbāiryān firistāda فرستاده بودم Āzarbāigān '.
Obs. فرستادن fristãdan is frequently constructed with a clause introduced by b t $t \bar{a}$ (Latin $u t$ ) denoting the object of the mission.

نمودن namūdan, and other Verbs meaning to show:-
Chūn pusht barahna kurd wa bi Mahmūd namūd 'when he bared his back and showed it to Maḥmūd '.
'guftan 'to tell, say', and other Verbs of similar import.
Obs. With Verbs of saying the sociative is frequently used (expressed by the Preposition $\mathrm{C} b \bar{a}$ ):-
 spoke to his chamberlains'.
 leave to', and similar Verbs:-

1) du has mā̄l-i-khwud p $\bar{\imath} r-i-z a n \bar{\imath}$ ra sipurسیردند dane 'two persons entrusted their property to an old woman'.
li $\bar{a} s h a$ ra bi khā̄k sipurdand 'they commisted the body to the earth'.
 sportiveness and facetiousness to booncompanions'.
Rule. Verbs of giving, sending, showing, telling, entrusting, leaving, and the like take an Accusative (Direct Object) and a Dative (Indirect Object).
§21. Verbs taking a Case and an Infinitive (or an apocopated Infinitive). The Infinitive, with the Verbs hereafter enumerated, was more commonly used by the earlier Persian authors, in later Persian the Infinitive gave place to a shortened form resulting from the dropping of the final letter of the Infinitive.

توانستن tawānistan 'to be able', and its congeners :-
tuft bigusil, natavānist gusistan'he said, "Break it!" he was not able to break it'.
 or by twos one can break them'.
خواستن khwāstan 'to desire' and similar verbs expressing wish, intention, or inception:-
 about to seize me'.
vādshāh ra dushnām dādan girift 'he began to abuse the king'.
gūgird-i-Pārsī bi Chïn khhwāham burdan "I intend to take Persian sulphur to Chin'.
Impersonal Verbs expressing fitness, propriety, necessity, possibility:-
 براستى سغن. men like us to say anything except that which is true'.
sar-ī-chashma shāyad giriftan bi bйll 'it is possible to stop the fountain-head with a spade'.
هيَ إبقا نبايد كردن hīch ibqā na bāyad kardan 'one ought on no account to spare (them)'.
 that he should have been crowned king'.
بإد دانست bāyad dānist 'one should know'.
 ought to have paid the money into the treasury '.
lb ال $\overline{2} n$ ra sharh na tavān dād 'one cannot describe this'.
位 bāshad 'it is possible that be may have taken it to Herät'.
N.B. It will be observed that in the above examples the Verbs بايست are used impersonally followed by an Infinitive or apocopated Infinitive. Sometimes, however, the Verb denoting the
action of which the propriety or necessity is affirmed is put in the present of the Subjunctive. For example :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {. بِ. bāyad biravam 'I must go'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

arise and come'.

> to have left it there'.
> نشايد كم نامت نهند آدمى na shāyad ki nāmat nihand ādamı̄ 'it is not fitting that they should call thee a man'.

It must be remembered also that شايستن is occasionally also used personally:-
 'the persons who are suited to a private audience'.
Obs. Verbs of ordering, asking, permitting, restraining, and the like, usually take a clause introduced by $\smile t \bar{\alpha}$ (equivalent to the Latin $u t$, or with a negative verb answering to the Latin ne), followed by the Verb in the Present Subjunctive, or the Preterite, according as the object of the action or its actual result is intended to be expressed :-
(a) Present Subjunctive :-
farmūd tā vai rā dar zindān mahhbūs kunand 'he ordered that they should shuthim upin prison'(resultuncertain).
(b) Preterite:-

خليفّ فرمان داد تا بهر بيتى Khalīfa farmān dād tā bihar bait̄̄ hazār هزار درم بوّى دادند ordered them to give him a thousand dirams for each couplet (i.e. with the result that the order was carried out)'.

Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Object (§ 5)
§22. In Persian, the chief Verbs which take a Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Object are Verbs of making, making out to be, calling, considering, showing, leaving, recognizing, and the like:-
 him his heir'.
 thou hast defiled any one with blood'.

خويششتن , khwīshtan rāa bāzārgān vā namūd 'he represented himself as a merchant'.
 used to call that vizier Rāst-ravish'.
bushman natavän haqū̄r u būchāra shamurd 'one should not consider an enemy contemptible nor helpless'.
 ' he showed himself to be an inveterate enemy'.
 land 'they fled, leaving the wall unfinished '.
This Predicate Adjective or Noun in some cases denotes-
(a) The result of an action:-

بيشتر لشكر را بی .بیرك و بیى bīh tar lashkar ra b̄̄ burg u baa sāz karla سازكردها $a m$ 'I have made most of the army provisionless and void of equipment'.
(b) What the object is, was, or will be at the time of the action:-
 bāyad kurd 'we must entirely demolish the fortifications'.
Obs. With certain Verbs the Preposition $j \bar{\omega}-i$ 'in place of, instead of', or some similar preposition may be inserted before the Predicate Noun. When this occurs, the Noun is attracted into the Genitive Case:-
 اورا جاى ییر می شهردم 'I looked upon him as my father'.

KINDS OF SENTENCES. (See § 11)

## I. Statements

§ 23. Statements of Fact (Negative ( $\mathcal{N}$; $n a f \hat{\imath}$ ) expressed by $\dot{\sim} \sim n a$ ):فارسى می كويد Fārsì mī gūyad 'he speaks Persian'. فارسى نمى كاريد Persian'.
§ 24. Modest Assertions, i.e. Cautious or Hesitating Statements:-
توان گفت tawān guft 'one might say'.
原 $g \bar{u} y \bar{a}$ 'as though'.
تو كغتى tu guftit 'one would say'.
نا mānā 'as though'.

## II. Will-Speech, i.e. Commands, Wishes, Concessions

§25. Commands ( o أ amr):-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Biravad 'let him go'. مِّرَّ }
\end{aligned}
$$

Rule. Commands to a person present to take immediate effect are expressed by the Imperative known as amr-i-hāzir, hāzir signifying 'present'.

Commands of an indirect nature to be conveyed to one who is absent are expressed by the Present Subjunctive in the third person singular or plural. This is known as $a m r-i-g h \bar{a} i b$, ghā ${ }^{\prime} i b$ signifying 'absent'.

Commands of a permanent or continuous nature are expressed by the unaugmented Imperative with $\mathrm{v}^{m \bar{\imath}}$ or hami signifying 'always' prefixed. This is called amr-i-mudām̄̄, mud $\bar{a} m \bar{\imath}$ signifying 'continuous'.

Obs. In the First Person Singular or Plural the Subjunctive is used with a preceding Imperative as a sort of polite command :-

بَ, bigū bib̄̄nam 'come tell me' (modern idiom).
Obs. Sometimes the two are combined, an Imperative preceding followed by a Clause in the Subjunctive expressing the object of the command :-

 order that ye may not wear women's garments', i.e. 'that you may not be branded as cowards'.

[^19]§26. Prohibitions (Negative commands oهن nahī):-
ज ${ }^{\text {on }}$ magū 'do not speak'.
ज
مكوئيد magūu $\bar{i} d$ 'do not (ye) speak'.
نت nagūyad ' let him not speak'.
; nagūyand 'let them not speak'.
Rute. Prohibitions are expressed in Classical Persian by prefixing $\therefore m a$ to the Imperative.

Obs. In the modern idiom $\quad m a$ is generally replaced by $\bar{j} n a$. The indirect prohibition is expressed by the Present Subjunctive with the prefixed negative $\bar{j} n a$.

Obs. Closely allied to the Prohibitive is the Negative of the
 cf. Greek $\mu \eta \grave{\eta}^{\gamma \in v \in ́ \sigma \theta \omega}$ 'let it not happen ':-

مبادا ك\$ זزندى بتو رساذم it not be that I should do thee an injury', i.e. 'lest I should', \&c.
In this sense we also find in earlier Persian the form نباي na bāyad :نبايد كه مرا كاهيتش بدل آمده na bāyad ki marā karāhiyatash badil
 has taken a dislike to me in his heart'.
§ 27. Wishes. Rule I. Wishes are expressed either by the Precative when the wish is positive, as:- رحمت بران خاك باد-blessings be upon that land!' or, by the negative of the Subjunctive or negative Precative when the wish is that some contingency may not happen. The Precative is the more intense form of speech. Thus:خدا نكند Khudā na kunad or Khudā na kunād 'God forbid!’

Rule II. Wishes that something may happen in the future may be expressed by كاش كاشكه كاش followed by the Present Subjunctive ( $=$ Future Optative):
 جاى برى هم بها بفروثى ham bimā bifarūzsh̄̄̀ 'would that you would sell to me the ewers and bowls you carry away from here'.
كاش خاشا آرزوى شعلد خانم Khāsh Khudā ärzū-i-Shuila Khānam birasainad 'would that God might fulfil the desire of Shu'la Khānam'.

Rule III. Wishes that something were otherwise than it actually is, or that something had been in the past otherwise than it actually was, are to be expressed by the Optative particles followed by the Past Imperfect, called مافى تمّتّاُقى 'the past of desire? (Past Optative):-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كاش برادرم آمدى kāsh birādaram āmadī 'would that my } \\
& \text { brother had come!' } \\
& \text { كاشف باران نیى باريد hash bārān na mi bārīd 'would that it } \\
& \text { had not rained!' }
\end{aligned}
$$

Obs. Regretful wishes referring to past time may be expressed by $\propto \sim$ followed by the Past Imperfect (see § 96) : ا چپ夫 بودى آر مَن آن درخت chi būdā agar man an diralkht rā bidānisبدانستیى tam in 'what a good thing it would have been had I known that tree'.
For expression of indirect wishes, see $\$ 57$.
§ 28. Concessions.

> ك givram ki' granted that . .
fare kunīd ki 'suppose that . . '
. فرض, bi farz-i-muhāl 'to suppose an impossibility'.
agar murda ham bäshad 'even if she be really dead'.
Concessions are expressed in a variety of ways, as the above phrases will show. No general rule can be formulated.

## III. Questions

§ 29. Any of the forms of the Statement ( $\S 23$ ) may become Inter-rogative:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { عربى نیى دانيد 'Arabā na max dān̄̄d'do you not know } \\
& \text { Arabic?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

ندانستى Sc بينى بند بر پإى thou not know ', \&c.?
a. Deliberative Questions, ie. questions as to what is or was to be done:زوَم يا نغ روم جوابش بدرهم

cf توان كفت chi tawān guff 'what was to be said ?'

Rule. Questions as to what is to be done in present or future time are expressed by the Subjunctive, or by the use of the Impersonal Verbs بإيستن bäyistan or tawānistan with the apocopated Infinitive (see § 21 ante).
b. Modes of Introducing Questions:-
1.

ديديد ayā dīd̄̄d'did you see?'
[Answer بلى bale, dīdam ' yes (I saw)'.]

[Answer نها خير نشینيدم na khair, na shunīdam 'no'.]
$O b s$. In Persian the Verb of the question is repeated, idiomatically, in the answer.

Rule. Questions which may be answered with 'yes' or 'no' are often introduced by Interrogative Particles.
2. that thou hast no care for sovereignty?'
 asked, "Is he, perhaps, ceremonially unclean?" He replied, "No"".
Rule. If there is a doubt in the mind of the questioner, the question is best introduced by the Adverb $\overline{\bar{K}}$ magar 'perhaps, possibly'.
3. गT ज
 this?'
, حندیی thou been so long a time?'
令 chirā nazdīktar niyā'乞 'why dost thou not come nearer?'
Rule. Questions which cannot be answered with 'yes' or 'no' are introduced, as in other languages, by Interrogative Pronouns, Adjectives or Adverbs without any Interrogative Particle.

## IV. Exclamations

§ 30. Some of the above-mentioned forms of speech, more particularly ${ }_{x} \rightarrow$ chi, become exclamatory :-
('سختيها ديدم I suffered!'


## THE COMPLEX SENTENCE (§10)

§31. Adverb Clauses are classified according to the Adverbial meaning which they express. Thus we have Adverb Clauses of-
(a) Time, introduced by-

نوپ chain, waqt̄̄ $k i$ 'when'.
il ${ }^{\prime}$ pas $a z$ 'after'.

 ز而 $a z \bar{a} n b \bar{a} z$ 'from that time forward'.
(b) Place, introduced by-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { busT ski anjāa'where, whither'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Reason, introduced by-

${ }_{x}$,

(d) Purpose, introduced by-

is $t \bar{\alpha}$ (with Negative Verb) 'lest, so that-not'.
مبادا mabādā 'lest'.
(e) Result, introduced by-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { I } t \bar{a} \text { (with Preterite Indicative) 'so that', } \\
& { }_{\Omega} \mathrm{ki} \text { ", "that'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(f) Condition, introduced by-
元 agar 'if'.
(g) Concession, introduced by-

هر م - $\boldsymbol{J}$ agar -ham 'even if'.

هر er وهن harchand, harchand ki 'however much'.
(h) Comparison, introduced by-

هر هدر Mar qadr 'in proportion as'.

هر ه $\quad$ oar chi, more' (these are all followed by Comparatives, § 44).
هر Mar chi if followed by a Comparative without a second clause has the meaning of the utmost possible, and is equivalent
 quad celerrimé.
; $a z$ or $\$ k i$ following the Comparative (or Positive used as a Comparative).
(i) Comparison + Condition, introduced by-

(j) Comparison + Result, introduced by-
$5 k i$ (following a clause expressing either positive or negative comparison), with Subjunctive.

## Temporal Clauses (Clauses of Time, § 31, a)

§ 32. 1. Those whose action is marked as $f a c t:-$ رفيق حون اين شین. بشنيد بهم بر آر ابر he grew angry'.
" از جوانان غاشيءُ متابعتش بر دوش گرفتّند 'So long as this poor ass was young and توانست كرد علفش همى دادى him his fodder regularly'.
 بلند شد thought till the day was begun '.
2. Those whose action is marked as (a) prospective, i.e. merely contemplated as a future contingency ; or (b) general:-
(a) Prospective:

Sit here until I shall take you before تير بريم $\quad$ the Lord of the arrow '.
(s) 'As long as I shall live '.
"When the nobles (shall) begin to come in'.
By the time that a fat body shall have become thin'.
(b) General [Ever clauses of Time]:
, And whenever the affairs of religion باشد suffer loss'.
'Whenever my eye lights upon Tāhir'. 'Whenever an ass is roasted the jackal سبلت سيغ كـد makes a spit of his whiskers (ie. pricks up his ears)'.
General Rules. 1. Temporal Clauses take the Indicative, as in English, when the action is to be marked as fact: Negative $\Varangle j$.
2. When the action is to be marked as prospective or general, the Temporal Clause takes the Present Subjunctive. Occasionally the Present Indicative is used in the latter kind of sentences (see (b) above, Ex. 2), indicating consciousness in the mind of the speaker that the action referred to does frequently occur.
3. When the Principal Clause is negative, the prospective action being made contingent upon some precedent condition, both clauses must be negative :-
'Till hunger overcomes them they will not eat anything'.
 ترا بهق تو نرسانم $\quad$ until I restore you to your rights'.

Local Clauses (Clauses of Place, § 31, b)
§ 33. The construction of Local Clauses follows the same rules as that of Temporal Clauses:-
 (Or (art thou) an owl who destroyest every place where thou sittest?'
Wo جاكَ گُلست خارست 'Wherever there is a rose, there is a thorn'.
§ 34. Causal Clauses (Clauses of Reason, § 31, c)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { نيان و بد }
\end{aligned}
$$

'Since good and bad alike must die, Happy is he who carries off the ball of goodness'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { هـاى بر هـه مرغان از آن شرن دارد } \\
& \text { كی أستخوان خورد و طائرى نيازاردر }
\end{aligned}
$$

'The Humā is held to be superior to all birds for the reason that it eats bones and does not annoy any bird'.

Rule, Causal Clauses take the Indicative when they denote fact. The Negative is $\delta$.
§ 35. Final Clauses (Clauses of Purpose, § 31, d)
't 'That he may give it fodder'.
بفرمايم تا هنادى كند 'I will order that he shall make a proclamation'.
'In order that I may not carry a complaint to the king'.
'In order that they may not get a firm footing'.
Rules. 1. Final Clauses take the Subjunctive in future time.
2. In sentences where the preceding clause refers to past time-
the Past Imperfect يك تن از ايشاب زنده نهاند كه خبر بولايت ايشان بُردى Indicative is idiomatically used as an ellipsis: 'Not a soul of them remained alive to carry the news to their country'.
3. When the purpose of the action is regarded as achieved, the Verb may be put in the Present Indicative:-

تا تُضلهُ هيدش ميذورم 'In order that I might eat (as I actually do) the leavings of his prey'.
4. Prohibitions or warnings against any course of action, followed by a final clause, take the Verb of the final clause in the Subjunctive :-
'Beware that thou turn not thy head away from justice and judgement so that the people may not turn away their foot from thy hand'.

Obs. Final Clauses may, by Assimilation of Mood, take a Past Tense of the Indicative (marking the purpose as not attained) in dependence on a Past Tense of the Indicative denoting a precedent condition not fulfilled, in Optative constructions:-

- Would that those who criticized me could have seen thy face Beloved ; So that, instead of the orange, at the sight of thee, unconsciously they might have cut their hands'.
§ 36. Equivalents of Final Clause. 'They sent ambassadors to take counsel' may be expressed-
ايليحيانرا مرستادند نا مشَوْرت bi th Pres. Subjunctive. بكـنـد (كنـند)
 فرستادند
اليلجپيانرا مشورت كنان فرستادند by by the Present Participle in future sense.
§ 37. Consecutive Clauses (Clauses of Result, § 31, e)
 النداختخند they threw the slave into the sea'.
To such an extent that the people were لود. at the last gasp'.
As a necessary result a fierce enemy arose'.
, I am conscious of so great strength and سرعت ميشناسم Sc در خدمت activity in myself that I should be an مردان يار شاطر باشم active companion in the service of men'.
 should exceed due bounds'.
Rule. Result is expressed by $৮ t \bar{a}$ with the Indicative, or by ${ }_{\delta} 5 k i$ with the Indicative, or Subjunctive if the result is only apprehended. Also by the phrases $\begin{aligned} & \text { yo } \\ & \text { la } \\ & \text { jaruma 'as a necessary consequence'; }\end{aligned}$位 or so great', 'to such an extent,' followed in the resultant clause by $\approx k i$.
- If '-Clauses (Clauses of Condition, § 31, f)
§38. A Complex sentence consisting of an Adverb Clause of Condition (the If-Clause, or Protasis) and a Principal Clause (Apodosis) is called a Conditional Sentence.

Such sentences fall into two classes according as the statement made in the Principal Clause is direct or conditional.
§ 39. Class $A$. The statement made by the Apodosis is direct:-
(a) Present Time:-
آر دنيا نباشد دردمنديم
' If we have not the world we are grieved (because of the want of it), and if we have it we are bound hand and foot by love of it'.
گر غنى زر بدامن افشاند
' If a rich man pours gold into thy lap, do not ever think of recompensing him '.
(b) Future Time:-
'If he hears of your need he will certainly هما نا كا در دقضاى آن توقّف روا ندارد
'If the end of this affair should be as
 I desire I will give so many dirams to the devotees'.
'If he should see you here he will Cl doubtless deliver us over to death '.
'If, in the presence of the Amir, being الفطراب نموده سنر بإِشا , باستقال شوشير و سناّن رفتّه باعدا قتال توانم كرد I had interrupted (lit. should interrupt) the king's speech, how when I go to meet the sword and spear of the enemy shall I be able to contend with them '.
Rule. When the Principal Clause makes a direct statement its Verb will be in the Future Indicative or the Present Subjunctive. The negative of the If-Clause will be si na.

Obs. General Conditions are a subordinate variety of If-Clauses in which if $=$ if ever, the Principal Clause expressing an habitual action or a general truth :-
'If (ever) you go out to hunt for a شيرك
آكربار اهل است كار سهل اسـ 'If the friend is worthy the undertaking is easy".
§40. Class B. The statement made in the Principal Clause is conditional, and is expressed by 'would ' or 'should':-
(a) Present Time:-
' آر lox ياد كنم خود كتابى باشد 'If I were to mention them all, they would themselves make a book'.
(b) Future Time:-
'If thou shouldst proceed thou wouldst , sleep thou wouldst die'.
(I had decided) that if I should obtain يكى از قلاع مكبوس كردانم prison thee in one of the fortresses '.

Rule. In Conditional Sentences referring to Present or Future Time we find-
(i) The Present Subjunctive, in both Clauses.
(ii) The Preterite, idiomatically used, in both Clauses.
(iii) The Preterite in the If-Clause, and the Future, Simple or Compound, in the Principal Clause :' If I should be staying I will certainly خوراهم
(If my brother comes (lit. came) I will tell him'.
(iv) The Present Subjunctive in the If-Clause and the Simple or Compound Future in the Principal Clause :-

' Even if' is expressed by,$\sqrt{\pi}$, in Poetry $;$; eng.

## كس نيايد بزير سائٌُ بوم ور هما از جهان شود هعدوم

' No one would come under the shadow of the owl, Even if the "hr ma" should become extinct from the world'.
(c) Past Time. In such eases the Antecedent Condition is unfulfilled:'If the old woman had obtained access بشكا, here, she would not have needed to نيفتادى go to the hunting ground '.
U' Had it not been for me (lit. had I not مغزهاى شماكرזسان خوردندى have eaten your brains long ago'.
'If I had performed those duties which سيرت و پارسا بودمى I recognize (as duties) I should have been virtuous and pious'. (N.B. Yā-iistimrārū after present tense is unusual.)
 برباد بدهم يكـى ازيــن جوا I should have brought one of these


Rule. When the Condition expressed in the If-Clause refers to Past Time, the Past Imperfect (ماضى شرطى Conditional Past) is usually employed in both Clauses.

Obs. Occasionally we find the Pluperfect used in place of the Past Imperfect:-
'If we had fought without orders, we ,س ما هربنك خداوندى بوديم زيز بندها not a servant'.
§ 41. Sometimes we find the If-Clause suppressed by ellipsis, as(The dog's) virtues were such that Ix كرگّ بر آويغتى
The omitted clause we may consider as being آر ‘ر $\quad$ if need had arisen', or some such phrase (see § 96. Potential Past).

## § 42. Other modes of introducing If-Clauses:-

(1) 'Whether . . or' introducing alternative clauses of condition,

All that happens to him whether in earnest or in jest'.
Whether you remain in his service باشيد ' or not'. خواه اين بخيرى خواه آن 'Whether you take this or that'.
 F
'If it be possible for me to seize his sleeve (it is well);
But if not, I will go and die upon his threshold'.
, But for that, I am not inferior to him in strength'.
(Show it me, or else give me regularly

(3) 'If haply' is expressed by
"They thought, if haply he is dead'.
'If haply ye should occupy yourselves هشغول كرديد $\quad$ in thanking God most High for his bounties'.

## Concessive Clauses (Clauses of Concession, § $31, \mathrm{~g}$ )

§43. The Principal Clause corresponding to a Concessive Clause has adversative meaning, i.e. it expresses what is true in spite of what is granted or conceded.
 'I will treat that person exactly as I have treated this dog, even though he were my child or my brother'.

با وجود اين صغات پسنديده بعدم رحم و قساوت قلب مشهور بود (2)
' In spite of these agreeable qualities he was notorious for mercilessness and hardness of heart'.

' How hast thou obtained that kingdom and sovereignty . . . . in spite of thy youth and the recent origin of thy reign ?'

نوشين روان با آنكم از دين بيگانه بود در عدل و راستى يگانَ بود (4)
' Nūshīn-rawān although he was a stranger to religion was unique in his justice and rectitude'.
گرپه روزى از كف خواجه است روزى ده خداست
'Although the subsistence comes from the hand of the lord, the real Giver of sustenance is God'.
(6) آرحه در آن روز از معركه بيرون رفت امّا عاقبت گرفتا, گششته بقتل آمه 'Although on that day he escaped from the field of battle, yet in the end he was captured and killed'.
هیندانكه، ملاطفت كردند آرام نگ,رفت
'In spite of all their attempts to soothe him, he received no comfort'.
Rule. In Concessive Clauses the concession is expressed by such phrases as $ب$; $ب$; with $=$ in spite of -before Nouns, Pronouns, or Infinitives, and by $0,{ }^{\circ}=$ 'even though '; $x_{0}, \pi, x_{0}, ~($ in poetry $)=$
 before a verbal sentence embodying the concessive statement.

The Principal Clause may be introduced by Lo l or

## Comparative Clauses (§ 31,h)

§44. Comparative Clauses fall into two divisions, according as they are introduced by words meaning (1) as, (2) than.

1. Introduced by words meaning as, the same as:-
 'To do good to the evil is the same as to do evil to good men'.
شهانكّد
'Just as thou hast heard a body of people gathered round him in partisanship'.

$$
33, \bar{K}_{0}^{K} 0
$$

จง
'As will be described'.

0ه0
'I am not to that extent safe from his violence'.
چون عهل هادشاهان چون سفر درياست سودمند و خطرباك
'The service of kings is like a voyage by sea, profitable and perilous'.
پسر پجون بيل- مست در آمد
'The boy came on like a mad elephant'.

' If you recognize the condition of the ant under thy foot,
It is exactly the same as thy condition under the foot of an elephant'.
بر مثالـ (میثل) , . . .وزرا بر مثـال اطبّبّا اند
' Ministers of state are like physicians'.
'As much as possible' is expressed by prefixing the words hat chi to the Comparative, using the phrase adverbially:-
(Come as speedily as possible before that آنكه مرد از خواب غفلت the man awakens from his sleep of
بيدار شود negligence'.
Or, by using this phrase as an Airjective, e.g.
. He returned with the greatest possible haste'.
'The more . . . the more' is expressed in two ways:-
(i) By repeating the comparative, or positive used as a com-parative:-
درو بيش ديدى دلش بيش 'The more she looked at him the more سورخت her heart burned'.
خر ك\$ كتر نهند بروى بار بره آسوده تر كند رفتار
'The ass the more lightly they load him the more easily he can travel'.
(ii) By prefixing certain words or phrases, indicative of proportionate comparison, to the comparative repeated or not:-
 (by so much) the more will he oppose you'.
( F , The more the sick man turned away
 "The more the night advanced the darker
 the clouds became'.
"The further we advanced the more دماغx بيشتز و .! clearly and better was the land of the ميشا promontory visible'.
Rule. The rules are deducible from the above examples.
2. Comparative Clauses introduced by words meaning than. The words used to introduce Comparative Clauses of this kind are-
(i) 5.
 بیگ, the blood of so innocent a boy'.
ترك It is better to forego the bounty of the كاحتهال جفالى :بوابان.
(ii) $; 1$.

Better to die of disease than to live in disgrace '.
Destitution is better than the disgrace of begging'.
More than is expressed by $ز$ or بيشتر or
Less than is expressed by $j$ كمتر $j$ or
Combinations of 'as' and 'than' representing Comparative Clauses, with Clauses of Condition or Result (§ 31, i)
§ 45. 1. As if (= as would be the case, if). This is expressed-
(i) by the use of

As though its sire had gored you with
(ii) by the use of or
'He looked and saw men lying over the أفتنادغ كفتى خفتّه اند
(iii) by the use of تؤى:-

命
'So sleepless and faded have I become, That thou would'st say I am dead in life'.
2. Than (so as) to ( $\S 31, \mathrm{j})$. This is expressed by a quasi-comparative clause followed by $\checkmark$ with the subjunctive :-
' I am not of the class of man to be شها كرِيفته وهغرور شوّ

## Adjective Clauses

§ 46. Adjective Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns \& $k i$, $x_{\nabla}$ chi, meaning who or which, as the case may be:(Am I not he who fell a prisoner at و باز از بغداد برفتم Rum and afterwards went back to Baghdād'.
دوست آن باشد كا گيرد دست دوست در پيريشان حالى ور
 A A tree which has recently taken root'. By reason of the old standing acquaintance which existed between as'.

' Everything which happens to me, if thou approvest it, is right '.
Rule. An Adjective Clause is introduced by $\delta$ when it is in the Nominative Case and is not either of the words $\bar{\sigma}$ ' every, all', or 'that'. These latter words, however, if followed immediately by the Relative Pronoun require $\underset{\square}{\circ}$ in the meaning of 'which'.

Sometimes in the Nominative the Relative Pronoun is followed by the Personal Pronoun relating to the subject. This pronoun is known as the $ع-\frac{\text { ', 'the referrer' or the 'the returner' because it refers }}{}$ or returns to the subject.
كودى كو بعقل بير بود (Sc= اא ا,
'A boy who (he) in intelligence is an old man'.
It will be seen that the use of the $\begin{aligned} & \text { l } \\ & \text {, in the Nominative Case, }\end{aligned}$ though permissible, is superfluous. Its employment is, however, indispensable in the Oblique Cases. Examples of this use follow :-

Genitive Case. 'Whose' is expressed by 'who, of him', \&c. : -
لرتو نيكان نگيرد هر كز بنبيادش بدست
'No one whose origin is evil receives the rays emanating from the good'.

Dative Case. 'To whom' is expressed by followed by the Pronoun in the Dative:-
(a) Dative expressed by 1 :-

الى
' O thou to whom my bodily form appeared contemptible'.
(b) Dative expressed by ut:-
آن زر هر آنكسرا Sc بوتَ دادنى است خوالهم داد
'I will give the money to whomsoever it ought to be given'.

## Accusative Case.

آن
'That fox which they saw (lit. which they saw it)'.

'All that thou canst, steal from thy allotted span of life by night'.
Obs. Sometimes we find an elliptical construction in which the subject of the sentence is itself put in one of the Oblique Cases, thus enabling the , to be suppressed though it is implied in the construction:-

## Genitive Case.


'Every one whose desire thou fulfillest becomes obedient to thy order'.

## Dative Case.


'Every one to whom Rāst Ravish had given employment'.

## Accusative Case.


'A certain man whom thou hast imprisoned'.

## Ablative Case.


'And none of those from whom I inquire will tell me the truth'.
In these elliptical constructions the Antecedent is attracted into the case in which by the structure of the clause the Relative should stand if the construction were normally developed.
§ 47.
Moods in Relative Clauses
هر ك٪ آمد عهارت نو ساخت
[Fact] 'Every one who comes builds a new house'.
هركما بنام فريفته شود بنان اندر ماند
[General] 'Every one who is beguiled by a name comes to be in want of bread '.
:رتوِ نيكان نگيرد هر كر بنيادش بدست
[Fact] 'No one whose origin is evil receives the rays emanating from the good'.
هر بدى كی بجاى او كُنـد دون حق او باشد
[Prospective] 'Any ill-treatment they may mete out to him would be less than his deserts'.
كيست كی از قافى داد بستاند
' Who is there who can get justice from the Qāzị ?'
Rule. Relative Clauses take the Indicative when the action is to be marked as fact. When the action is to be marked as prospective or general they take the Subjunctive in either present or future meaning.

## § 48. Causal Relative Clauses:-

(Give one to me who am (because I am) in great distress',
'The case of the girls is harder who are (seeing that they are) weak and helpless'.
 (i.e. seeing that he will be dead), take it from me?'
Rule. Causal Relative Clauses, if they refer to actual facts take the Indicative, if on the other hand they are prospective they take the Subjunctive.

## a. Final Relative Clauses :-

(Give this letter to the servant to give to 'Azdu-d-daulah immediately'.
(
Rule. Final Relative Clauses take the Subjunctive.
b. Consecutive Relative Clauses:-

A brief answer such that if it were بر ماللا افتد فتّنُهُ نباشد published it should not do mischief'.


'There are few people in the city who ' $\quad$ would not recognize this ass '.
Rule. Consecutive Relative Clauses take the Subjunctive.

Obs. 'Whoever he may be', 'Whatever it may be', \&c., is expressed by $\otimes$ followed by the Subjunctive in the Relative Clause:-
هتاع نيh از هر دكان. كه باشد (Take) a good thing from whatever shop it may come'.

## NOUN CLAUSES

§ 49. Noun Clauses may be divided into two great classes :-
A. Those which express that something is or should be:(i) می دانم كه تو بـى وفا هستى 'I know that thou art faithless'.

Here the that-clause is a statement of fact, and is called a Dependent Statement.
 yourself'.
Here the that-clause expresses what should be, and is called a Dependent Command.
B. Those which are introduced by an Interrogative or exclamatory word :-
(i) ندانيم ايا مرده است يا زنده 'We do not know whether she is alive or dead'.
Here the Subordinate Clause is Interrogative, and is called a Dependent Question.
(ii) (It was still more wonderful that the مجاورت طوطل بجان آمده بود neighbourhood of the parrot'.
A. Noun Clauses expressing 'that something is or should be' (Dependent Statements and Dependent Commands)
$\S 50$. That -Clauses are expressed in Persian by $\checkmark, \zeta 5$ or an equivalent (e.g. بدانكه) with a Finite Verb:-
'I thought that my thigh was broken'.
(He did not know that he was Bahrām'. 'He said that he was a descendant of 'Ali'.
 زنده نكذارد
نبايد كڭ مرگّ فراز رسد 'May it not be that'.
'Lest he should die in that state', lit. 'May it not be that'.
نگر نا مرا بر خويشتن نززينى yourself'.
(See to it that you do not fear to kill him'.

## §51. Verbs of 'Saying' and 'Thinking'.

Rules. That-Clauses dependent upon Verbs of Saying and Thinking, are expressed by a Finite Verb which may or may not be introduced by $5:-$
(I I thought that my thigh was broken' ( ' is broken').
خاربس ,پنداشت احتراز وى از زخمر_ سنان_ إوست ance of it was due to its thorn-wounds' (lit. 'his avoidance is due to its thornwounds').
'He said to Aḥmad Masan, "Do you know زمان در دل من په مبگردد moment?"
 در كردن تو كرديم

Obs. Similarly, Verbs of Imagining, Supposing, Suspecting, \&c.
It will be seen from these examples that the usual construction with Verbs of Saying and Thinking is to use $\sqrt{ }$ to introduce the actual thoughts or words as referred to the time at which they were conceived in the mind, or spoken, or less commonly to recite these thoughts or words without using $\$$ to introduce them.

Obs. The Direct Speech in such cases, is far more usually employed than the Indirect (see § 64).

In the Passive Construction of Verbs of Saying and Thinking, the Persian employs, as in similar constructions with other Verbs, the active construction with the impersonal subject:-
(He was considered to be the champion of the age' (lit. 'People considered him the champion of the age ').
§52. Verbs of 'Perceiving', 'Knowing', and 'Showing'.
Rule. That-Clauses depending on Verbs of this kind are expressed by a Finite Verb introduced by $5:-$
 من بغرض هيشنود annoyed and was (lit. is) listening to my advice as though it was based on self-interest'.
ديدم Sc زَنَسْم در نمى 'I saw that my words were (lit. are) having no effect'.
شـه دانيـد كه اين oo از How do you know but that this man دزدان باشد
'He made a sign with his head to show him that he should sit down' (lit. as much as to say 'sit down').
§53. Verbs of 'Rejoicing', 'Grieving', and 'Wondering'.
These Verbs most commonly take a Noun, Verbal-Noun or InfinitiveNoun introduced by a Preposition to express the object of the mental emotion :-

بیر بديدن- 'و شادهانى كرد 'His father rejoiced to see him'.
تـادشاء بـر سـلامت ، The king rejoiced at his prosperous شادمانى
'Do not grieveover what you have heard'. 'Sorrowing for the loss of the old خورد $\quad$ cf companionship'.
Obs. Sometimes these Verbs are constructed with a That-Clause expressed by $\delta:-$
" What wonder is it that thou shouldst hide thy face'.
Similarly constructed are verbs expressing other mental emotions, such as Verbs expressing hatred, disgust, dislike, shame, regret, anger, and the like.

Obs. Verbs of shame, \&c., occasionally take a That-Clause introduce by $\leqslant$ :-
Art thou not ashamed in that thou لئيم دراز مى كنى oldest out thy hand to every mean person?'
§54. Verbs of 'Fearing'. These verbs are generally constructed with a That-Clause following $\times$ :-
.I feared that God most High would عتوبت كند
Or the Subjunctive Clause may follow without $\sqrt{5}$ :
I fear that thou wilt not reach the Kaaba, O Arab'.
'Because it fears that he will crush its head with a stone'.
Obs. Verbs of fearing may also take the thing or person feared expressed by ; ; see § 70 (19): -
 . thee'.
§55. Verbs of 'Hoping', 'Expecting', and the like.
These Verbs generally have a That-Clause introduced by $\mathrm{S}:-$
مترقّب ك\$ كسى حرارت مرا بمه Expecting that some one would assuage برف آبى فرو نشاندا


隹 آ Do not expect that thou wilt gain thy desire from him '.
نبايد كم مرا كراهيّش بدل آمد8 May it not be that he has taken a disاست like to me in his heart'.
So also, Verbs of 'Allowing', 'Permitting', 'Thinking right', 'Being right', and the like:-
(Gl 'Oh! my friend, will you allow me to خوش و هاكِيز8 بهيرم
مرا نمى دهند كه داخل بشوم 'They will not permit me to enter'.
侺 'But it is not right that thou shouldst shy'.
... 'The giver of the law does not think it right that ...'
§ 56. Verbs of 'Ordering' and the like.
The construction of these Verbs varies according to the sense :-
(1) If the meaning to be conveyed is that the order given was carried into effect, the particle $b$ is to be used followed by the Preterite Indicative:-
بفرمود تا غلامرا بدريا انداختند He ordered, and they threw the slave into the sea'.
(2) If, on the other hand, the result of the order is not to be made known, but merely its object, $\mathrm{l}^{\circ}$ must be used with the Present Subjunctive:-
.He ordered them to imprison him'.
In this construction $\delta$ may be employed instead of $\mathfrak{G}$ :-
'The king ordered them to cut off his hand'.
§57. Verbs of 'Will' or 'Desire'.
These Verbs are usually constructed with a That-Clause introduced by $\delta$ though less commonly $\delta$ may be suppressed:-
(Is it your wish, that God most High :ترا چون ديخران راست گرداند others?

> خواست بخ, 'He was about to flee '.
> خواهم بنويسم 'I want to write'.

Sometimes, though rarely, the Verb expressing will or desire is followed by an Infinitive, or Apocopate Infinitive :-
(And the boy, through ignorance, wishes to go there'.
(He came out of the tent and was about to return'.
§58. Verbs of 'Swearing' or 'Asseveration' and the' like. سوگ: بآن خداى كه ترا بخلافت مكرّ كرده است كه من نمى دانـر Sc
 قافیى ال بركردن خود سواركند $\quad$ سند shoulders'.
Obs. Sometimes the oath is introduced by ${ }_{5} 5$ (called 15 ), the Verb of swearing being unexpressed the Precative Tense being used :' May the curse of God light upon you'.
Obs. Verbs of congratulation in the Precative Tense are generally followed by a Clause introduced by $S:-$ (Good tidings for thee! that we have captured such and such a fortress'.
(Persian grammarians term this $\sqrt{5}$ : $5=k \bar{a} f$ of causation.)
§59. Verbs of 'Forbidding', 'Preventing', 'Denying', and the like.
These Verbs are usually constructed with an Ablative expressed by $j:-$ (He prevented me from obtaining access to him '.
(ورا از دخول باز دشتند
§60. Verbs of 'Remembering', 'Pondering', and the like.
These Verbs take a Genitive Case expressed by $j$ :-
هيهت از ما يادمى آير 'Dost thou ever remember me?'
范 lb 'I was pondering over my sins'.
Obs. The Verb to forget governs its object in the accusative :" Whenever I forget God Almighty'.
§ 61. Impersonal expressions denoting 'It happens', 'It is the fact', 'It is possible', 'It is likely', 'It is impossible', 'It is right', 'It is wrong', 'It is necessary', 'It is said'- 'They say', 'It is recorded', 'The story goes', 'It is rumoured', and the like:-解 ' It is impossible that the virtuous should وبى هنران جاى ايششان كيرنd their place'.
*) At times it happens that the favourite ;ربیابد, of His Majesty the Sultan gets gold, at others it may be that he loses his head'.
 ميتواند ك آنرا نهرات برده باشه (Ty ' It is recorded that the enemy's army بود was innumerable ${ }^{\prime}$.
They say that on that self-same day the قِفت ' king was cured'.
Rule. That-Clauses depending on impersonal expressions denoting 'It happens', 'It is possible', and the like are expressed by 5 followed by the Verb in the Subjunctive.

That-Clauses depending on impersonal expressions denoting 'It is said', 'They say,' and the like are expressed by 5 followed by the Verb in the Indicative.
§62. Verbs of Caution and Precaution, Obligation, Effort, \&c(They should observe who there is in

بر كار دين شغقتى است that place who has a solicitous regard for religious matters'.
, He should make it his duty to give admission to the 'Ulamà'.
Take care not to think mere bulk a merit'.
. Beware, and do not omit your prayers and religious obligations'.

'Make an effort, men, that ye may not نیوشيل wear the garments of women'.
Rule. Precaution is enjoined either by special Verbs of Caution or by exclamatory warnings followed either by the prohibitive or by a negative of the Subjunctive.
B. Noun Clauses introduced by an interrogative or exclamatory word (Dependent Questions and Dependent Exclamations)

## § 63. Introducing words.

1. Dependent Questions (introduced by G or 5 ): Tell me whether you like gold or your
 (My precious life has been spent in this, (تا what shall I wear in winter?'
2. Dependent Exclamations:-
'I swear by that God who hath exalted


خَ
'What things I have seen, what sorrows
Of this kind also are the ejaculations expressive of sorrow :-

## §64. Reported Speech.

1. The most usual method of reporting speech in Persian is to quote words in their original form (Oration Recta). The speaker's words are most commonly, though not invariably, introduced by $\delta$ (called
 were $S a^{\prime} d i ̄$ ' (lit. 'I am $S a^{\text {'din }}$ ').
II ordered you to supply the people with جوقت خويش برسان their food at the proper time ' (lit. ' Supply the people, \&c.').
ا The old woman replied that she would خورد تر است not sell it' (lit. 'I will not sell it because it was still more suitable to her needs').
'She said, "Either you give me the price or its equivalent" .
In these last two examples it will be seen that 5 is omitted before the words.
2. Less commonly the indirect form (Oratio Obliqua) is used in Persian :-
(He swore an oath that when he should بيك دن درم بفروشد find it he would sell it for a diram'.
Occasionally the two methods are used together, as in the following quotation from the Siyasat nama:-



'They issued a proclamation, saying, "The king has deposed Rāst Ravish from his vizirship, and is angered against him and will never hereafter employ him again. Every one who has suffered at his hands, and has any complaint to prefer should come to the court and represent his case so that the king may give him (lit. you) justice" ".

This is quite grammatical in Persian owing to the use of the indirect
 extends to thoughts passing in the mind, or intentions, as well as to words (see Verbs of Thinking, ante, §51). Thus we have the actual thoughts directly expressed in the following :-

خارْنُن هنداشت احتراز وَى از زخم سنان اوست abstention was due to fear of its thorns' (lit. 'is due to ').
:The weaver thought that teaching conكفتن همان سر جنبا نيدن (lit. ' consists in ').
§65. Rule. As a result of what has been stated it will be evident that in translating an indirectly reported speech from English, it will be necessary to change the indirect tense of the English into the corresponding direct tense, present, or future indicative or imperative in Persian thus:- 'The king asked what occasion there was for laughter in such circumstances', will be rendered in Persian-
ملك هرسيد در يـ حالت هـه مباى خنديدن است $\quad$ راست

Similarly, 'The tailor told an apprentice to lay down his needle, and to get up and go to a certain Amīr's palace ', will become in Persian-
 ازیدست بنغ بر خيز و بسراى "Lay down your needle, get up and فلان امير زو go, \&c."

Again, 'would ' in English becomes 'will' in Persian :-'They said they would speak to him' becomes-

> "They said, "Very well, we will speak to him".
'Ibrāhīm says that he was sitting outside Kūfa on the roof of a house which looked out over the plain'. This becomes in Persian-



بود نشسته بودم
Obs. We do, however, occasionally meet with indirectly reported speech; for example, we find in the Bahäristān of Jam $\bar{\imath}$ the following:An Arab had lost a camel. He swore خورد كم would sell it for a single diam '.

Where, according to the more common usage, we should expect to find the Verb in the first person, i.e. بفروشم and بيابم.

## PART II. MEANINGS OF FORMS

§ 66. The Cases of the Persian language are nine in number:-
Nominative . Case of the subject.
Vocative . . Case of the person or thing addressed.
Accusative . Case of the object.
Genitive . . Case of the class to which a person or thing belongs.
Ablative . . Case of separation.
Dative . . . Case of the remoter object.
Locative . . Case of the place where.
Instrumental . Case of instrument with which.
Sociative . . Case of associated circumstance.

## §67. The Nominative.

The Nominative is the Case of the Subject, and of the Predicate used in apposition with the Subject:-
خواجه نظام الملك و زبرِبست 'Khwāja Nizāmu-l-mulk is an incomparable minister'.
The Nominative may also be used for the Vocative:-
(Sa'di!! take the path to the Ka'ba of the divine favour'.
§68. The Vocative is simply the Nominative used in two special ways:-
(1) By prefixing an interjection $\mathbf{v}:-$
'O 'O men! make an effort'.
(2) By affixing an I (alif-i-nid $\bar{\alpha})$ to it:-

خدايا جانش بستان 'O God! take away his life'.
自 the spring'.
دريغا كى بر خوان الوان عمر 'O the pity of it! when we had but دنى خورده بوديم
Obs. This last 'alif-i-nid $\bar{a}$ ' is sometimes called الفـ, 'مُبالغء 'the alif of exaggeration' and الفـ, نُدبه alif-i-nudba 'the alif of lamentation'.

## Uses of the Accusative

§69. The Accusative (§ 17).
(1) The Accusative may be the Object of a Transitive Verb:"The Governor approved of this speech'.

قصيده پیش ملك بُرد نيكوَش بنشانى 'Give him a good seat'.
(2) The Accusative may have an Adverbial meaning :-
(a) Denoting 'extent' either of time or space (Accusative of Extent):-
روند خلق بديدار او بسى فرسنگّ (People come many miles to see it'.
متدار هنت فرس:كّ رفتّه بود 'He had gone a matter of seven leagues '. (I remained there twenty days'.
(b) Denoting point of time:-
(At the time of emergency when flight is impossible'.
(On the day of resurrection they will ask thee'.
(c) Denoting 'that in respect of which' (Accusative of Nearer Definition):-
ملك هـكنان را اشارت بكشتن. 'The king gave the sign for the execution كرد of all of them' (lit. ' with respect to all of them, gave the sign ').
 persons ..... .
حسود , What can I do, in the case of the envious man?'
Of this nature are many Compound Adjectives:-
ظهابرهنه ' Barefooted' (lit. 'bare as to the feet').
'سر بريده8 'Decapitated' (lit. ' cut off as to the head ').
دَهَن دريده
Small of stature'.
Pi
And many others.
(3) The Accusative may be that of an Object and $\triangle$ Predicate in apposition with it (Factitive Accusative):مرا ديوانغ كرد 'He has made me mad'.

البيس tl معلمّ. مانلئه of angels?'
Who has not in the end made me his mark?'
 هنداشثته
(4) The Accusative may be Cognate to the Verb (Cognate Accusative) :-

This form of the Accusative is of infrequent occurrence, but we do meet with instances of it more especially in early Persian :-

بياراست آرإش جادويُى (lit.) 'He adorned a magical adornment'.
N.B. Of this class are the second elements of the words .نائب مناب
(5) The Accusative is used sometimes in expressions of swearing :. (I swear by) your death'.

Meanings of the Genitive and the uses of the Izāfat
§ 70. The Genitive in Persian, as in other languages of the family, has primarily the meaning (' of') and is an Adjectival Case, i.e. does the work of an Adjective. The special signification of the Genitive is to be ascertained from the context of the particular sentence :-
(1) The Genitive may denote 'belonging to' in one or other of the various meanings attaching to this expression :-
(a) Possessive Genitive :-

كانرُ قأفى 'The house of the Qāzī'.

This is called in Persian grammar اضافت. تغميمى or اضافتـتهايكى.
(b) Genitive of Sonship:-

(c) Genitive of Locality :-

شيراز_ فارس 'Shīrāz in (the province of) Fārs'.
(d) Genitive of Authorship:-
"The Gulistān of Sa'dī".
(e) Genitive of Origin :-
(ز) 'The wound inflicted by the leopard '.
كاروان_ امضهان 'The cāravān coming from Iṣfahān'.

(f) Genitive of Material (انافت, بيانى): :-
j jj

(2) Partitive Genitive :-

بتيت_ عهر
Expressed by the prep. l:-
يكى از ورزا 'One of the ministers'.
Obs. The 'Partitive' Genitive is most commonly expressed in this way by a partitive word followed by $j$, especially with verbs of participating, eating, tasting, or drinking :-
lb ازگلستان. من ببر ورقى 'Take a leaf of my Gulistän'.
'They eat a little of everything ’.
N.B. The Genitive is sometimes employed when there is no real partition :- ايشان 'All of them', may also be expressed by

(3) The Genitive may denote what might have been expressed as the Object of a Verb (Objective Genitive) :-

"The ymade efforts to procure his release'. .What should be the requital of such - one?'
(4) The Genitive may denote Amount (Genitive of Amount):طفل - 'A boy of five years of age'. 'Provision for three days'. سفر_يك مكا 'A month's journey'. صر8ُ فیانصد دينار 'A purse of five hundred dirams'. 'Bread sufficient for a week'.
(5) The Genitive is also used with words denoting Plenty or Want :كثرتـ, دولت 'Plenty of wealth'. 'Scarcity of water'.
(They are all full of gold and jewels'. باغات از 'The orchards were full of fruit and grapes ’.
A hand empty of the means of subsistence '.
(6) The Genitive may also be used for Specification (Genitive of Specification) called in Persian انمافت _ توضيمى :-
شهر_بصر 'The city of Başra'.
'The man who is a prisoner'.
سفر. درِيا A voyage by sea'.
(7) The Genitive may be used to denote the component parts of a whole:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {, 'A flock of sheep'. } \\
& \text {, 'A string of pearls'. } \\
& \text { 'A portfolio of papers'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Obs. The parts composing the whole are idiomatically put in the singular.
(8) The Genitive is also used to denote distance from a place (Genitive of Separation) :-
 دربِّ منزئى طهران 'At a distance of one stage from Tehrān'.
(9) The Genitive is used to denote worth or cost:-
'Horses worth forty or fifty tūmāns'.
(10) The Genitive is used to denote similitude :-

گَكْهُ مرجان 'A hand like coral'.
هشا
Persian grammarians call this Genitive اضافت, تشبييكي.
(11) The Genitive is used in metaphorical expressions:-
: 'The hand of regret'.
'The head of sense'.
By Persian grammarians this is called انافت _إستعار.
(12) The Genitive is used as an Adjective proper:-

This is called by Persian grammarians اضافت_تووبغى; i.e. the genitive which qualifies :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ووز_ روش 'A bright day'. اسب سفيد 'A white horse'. } \\
& \text {. دور _آخر 'The second volume'. 'The last round’. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(13) Closely connected with the Adjectival Genitive of Qualification is the Genitive of the Infinitive after a Substantive or Adjective denoting fitness, ability, or capacity, or intention:-

A foot fit to travel' .
A place in which to stand'.

> سزای ستودن 'Worthy to be praised '.
> قابل ديدن ، 'Worth seeing.
> ارادادُ رفتّ 'Intention of going'.
(14) The Genitive may denote the Source whence; see (1) (e):(No one has learned the art of archery from me' ; cf. Old English 'I learned it " of" him'.
( There was affection on both sides (lit. from)'.
(15) The Genitive is used in Comparison(Genitive of Comparison); see § 44 :-

اسِ تازی آكر ضعيف بود هـهینان از طوِيلةً خر iN
'The Arab horse although it be slender, Still is better than a whole row of asses '.
To die of disease is better than to live in disgrace '.
(16) The Genitive may also denote Time when or Place where, following a preposition:-

، يشش از آنكه 'Before the time when'. رس از عيد 'After the festival'. תֶیش قافی 'In the presence of the Qāzīi'. 'Behind the curtain'.
(17) The Genitive may denote the Cause:-
'From fear of his enemies'.
By reason of weakness'.
lb از فُعف ريرى 'Because of the feebleness of old age'.
lb 'By reason of his intelligence'.
'Because he is afflicted by reason of being what he is'.
(18) The Genitive may denote Way or Means:-

از ازل عبور كرده 'Having crossed by the bridge'.
(He caused (the arrow) to pass through the circle of the ring'.
' ' ' ' horseman came in by the gate'.
(Not every one who can split a hair with (by means of) an armour-piercing arrow'.
(19) The Genitive is used with Verbs expressing various emotions of the mind to denote the reason of the emotion. Such verbs are those of fearing, being anxious or cautious, being vexed, trembling, smiling :-
 "account whose accounts are honest?’
范 'He thought anxiously of the danger involved'.
(His hand does not shake at the thought of rendering his account'.
'Smiled at these words'.

(20) With Verbs denoting to come from, to arrive from, \&c., the case denoted by ${ }^{\prime}$ must be regarded a Genitive (see (14)):lb In I have come from the pilgrimage to Mecca'.
(21) Verbs denoting asking, hearing, receiving news or information, and the like, also take a genitive :-

از دوزخيان پُرس 'Ask of the dwellers in hell'.
'If thou hast heard a careless word from thy slave'.

> ‘; 'News was received from Bulkhārā'.
'No one has learned archery from me' (see (14)).
I asked a learned man concerning the *) meaning of this $\Pi$ \#adīss'.
(22) With some Verbs the Genitival sense is conveyed by $ب$ :. بر حال من وقوف يافتند 'They became aware of my condition.
(23) The Genitive is sometimes expressed by 1 , (see Dative, $\S 72$ (2)):The heart of the thirsty one will not desire sweet water'.
(24) The Genitive of Price, or Barter, or Value given or expected is expressed in Persian by the Preposition $\underset{\text { x }}{=}$ in return for :-


At another time they give a robe of honour in exchange for abuse '.
'Fortune and wealth do not depend upon skill'.
بيذشش و انعام خداوندى 'They are hoping for the royal bounty and reward'.
اورا تو بده درم خريدى 'Thou didst buy him for ten dirams'.
(25) The Genitive defining component parts of a whole [see (7)] where those parts differ from one another is expressed by $;$ (Genitive of Variety):-
Numerous chambers such as reception , rooms, banqueting halls, sleeping apartments, \&c.'

Meanings of the Ablative (Case of Separation)
§ 71. The Ablative is used with Verbs denoting distance, removal, taking away, separation, loosing, delivering, lifting, and the like:-
'He left this transitory world ’.
بايد از ينجا سفر بكنيم 'We ought to travel from this place'.
يارى جدا كند ز يارى 'It separates friend from friend'.
He will not distinguish the rich man from the beggar'; ie. by a process of separation.
از بستر_ نررش '(Taking him) from his soft couch'.

اورا از بندا كران رهائى دادند 'They set him free from his heavy bonds'.
 to Rūm'.

Also with Verbs denoting defect, inability, \&c.:-
. سمنl. بادها از pace'.

Also with Verbs of being free from, turning from, ignoring, being careless of, revolting against, abandoning, leaving behind, withholding, keeping secret, \&c.:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (He abandoned the intention of killing } \\
& \text { him'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(He left as his death-legacy the throne of greatness'.
'He revolted against that monarch ’.
عفو كردن از ظالمان جور است بر مظالومان offence of) the oppressor is to inflict violence upon the oppressed '.
'Every one who washes his hands of life'. (He drew back his hand from the food'. : 'Abstain from uttering such words'.
 .When they withhold treasure from the soldier'.

Meanings of the Dative (Case of the Remoter Object)
§72. (1) The Dative depends (a) upon a Transitive Verb (Dative of the Indirect Object):-
ايشانرا مدد كردند 'They assisted them '.
'A king entrusted a boy to a teacher'.
حكيق یسران را نید هـى داد A philosopher continually advised the boys'.
يكى اشارت بكشتن داد 'One indicated death (as the penalty)'.
(b) Upon an Intransitive Verb:-
"My father will have reached Paradise'. كلاك , اُ حُسن تدبيراو موافق آمد 'His excellent plan seemed suitable to the king'.
جون بقريِx نزديك To When they came near the village'.
(2) The Dative may denote 'for' (Dative of Interest):-

مرا اين قطعx زمين خريد
'It is proper for the whole people, generally'.
هر دو جهان مرا بدست آهر 'Both worlds have come into my hands'.
This includes the Dative of the Possessor with Verbs denoting to be, or to become :-
. $\quad$. What is that to you?'



While with some Verbs the Dative form really expresses a Genitive :-
. The father's heart was moved'.
e ce Azdu-d-daulah's heart burned for him. "The beautiful wife of a certain man

Meanings of the Locative (Case of the place where or time when)
§73. The Locative has the meanings 'on', 'in', 'into ', 'at', 'by', 'to', and is expressed by the prepositions $\rho-\boldsymbol{\rho}-\mathrm{O}$ and sometimes by a combined use of $\mathrm{\infty}$ preceding and, following the noun:بدست يكّ جوبى و در بغل In the hand of one a stick, and under ديخرى كُوْكَوبى
(On the tablet was written in (letters of) gold '.
I passed by the door of that writingschool'.
بر بالش ديبا تكيه زده



دركُتُب مسطور ست ، 'It is written in the books'.

'At night time ’.
'There are countless profits in the ocean, وكَر خواهى سَلاهت بركنارست shore'.
بهنزل Tن شغص در آمد باز گشت , بكوهستأن در آمد 'He turned back and came to Kūhistān'.

Meanings of the Instrumental (Case of the Instrument with which)
§ 74. The thing with which any action is performed is most commonly expressed in Persian by the Preposition $\%$ [occasionally by ب or less commonly by $\left.{ }^{\prime}\right]$ ]:-
'As though its sire had gored you with 'One may stop the fountain-head with a spade'.
. One may carry off the ball with the club of labour'.
بكرص زر سنگّ را بمولاد مى بُريد stone with the steel'.
(See ante, §70, Genitive of Means (18), last example.)
Meanings of the Sociative (Case of Associated Circumstance)
§75. The Sociative Case is expressed in Persian by the preposition ب! :-

Cl Entered a city with the caravan from the Hijāz'.
 great men'.
. In speech are with the king, but in their hearts are with the king's enemies'. آنرا با زمين راست كردند 'They made it even with the ground'. ناتدى را با ترازو بيار 'Bring a cambist with his balance'. .He was talking with his fellow'.
Obs. In some cases the 'Sociative' Preposition conveys an adversalive meaning:-

With (ie. in spite of) all this overbearing behaviour'.

## SUPPLEMENT TO MEANINGS OF CASES

Expressions of Place
§ 76. In the province of Khurāsān On the frontiers of Dīnawar He went out of the city He turned him out of the place He hastened to Baghdad He set out for Māzandarān He led an army to Herat

در ولايت خُراسان در حدود ديئور

از أجّا بيرون كرد ببغداد شتافت
روى مازيزدران آورد
لشكر بهرات كشيد

Rule. 'Place where', 'Place whence', and 'Place whither' are expressed by Prepositions.

## Expressions of Space

§77. Distance is expressed in the case appropriate to the meaning of the sentence:-



(Till you put half a farsang between us'. "At a distance of five farsakhs from this place '.
رفت تا بنزدياك خيهد 'He went on till (he came) near the tent'.

## EXPRESSIONS OF TIME

§ 78. Time when
(a) By the use of the Preposition, $:-$

در اليّام دولت او
'In the year 213'.
(b) By the Accusative ( $\$ 69,2 \mathrm{~b}$ ) without the affix J :(وز يكشنبه 'On Sunday'.
At morning time, when I was about to start'.
. صباح سيم عيد اورا مرده يافتـد 'Id they found him dead'.
هی خورم صيف چه هوشم شتا 'What shall I eat in summer, what wear in winter?'
(c) By By :-

范 'When they came they found him dead'.
(d) By the Dative with y :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { باندك زمان 'In a little while'. } \\
& \text { قرِبب بعيد 'Near the Id'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

§ 79.
By his orders they proclaimed for seven days in succession.
'He used to be his companion of nights'. 'For several days I always went to pay my respects to him'.

3, 'He remained there two months'. شب شب خرابم كبرد

THe was governor of Khurāsān for many years'.
Rule. 'Time how long' is expressed by the Accusative, generally without J, (see § 69).
§ 80.
Time till when
'Sit here till I take you before the Lord تير بريم
انديشنـاك هـهى رفت تا He journeyed on in anxious thought till بلند شد it was broad daylight'.
تا تارسنگى بر ايشان غالب زشود 'They will eat nothing till hunger over-

'I will not sleep till I restore you to زرسانم your rights'.
Rule. 'Time till when' is expressed by it introducing the 'till' clause. It should be carefully observed that if the primary clause is negative the secondary clause must also be negative; see examples above.
§81. Time (past period)
It is twenty years that we have seen با او بينيم $\quad$ this ass in his possession'.
 زندان مـأنده ا
هغتت سالست Sc رنج زندان mont'.
'As long as this poor ass was young'. 'From the time when I kept my hands off gold'.
Rule. Time of 'past period' is expressed by $b$ (or $\delta$ ) introducing a clause with its Verb in the past tense, or in the present used idiomatically for the past (vivid construction).
§ 82.
Time within which
(I I shall return within a month'.
تا شود جسم فربهمى لاغر لاغرى مرده باششا از سختى
'By the time that a fat body has become lean, A lean man will be dead from hardship'.

Rule. 'Time within which' is expressed by $l$, followed by the Verb in the Present Subjunctive when the statement is indefinite.
§83. Time how long before or after

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تیند روز قبل از ورود او 'A few days before his arrival'. } \\
& \text { بعد از ونات او بهد سال 'After his death by a hundred years'. } \\
& \text { ده روز بعد 'Ten days later'. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Rule. 'Time how long before or after' is expressed either by an accusative (without 1 ,) when it precedes the preposition 'before' or 'after', or by the Genitive (with This latter construction explains the following example:-

بيلك هالا سردابه راست كرد 'A month (later) he built the cellar'.
As though we should read بعد از ان بيلن باه

## MEANINGS OF PREPOSITIONS

§84. There is no need to treat specially of the Prepositions, the syntax of which is so simple. All that can be said of them will be found in Slats' Grammar, ed. Ranking, § 104 A ; and in the present work under the various cases in the formation of which they are employed ( $\S \S 66-76$ ).

## MEANINGS OF THE MOODS AND TENSES

## §85. A. Tenses formed from the Present Stem (v. Grammar, § 73) <br> Tenses of the Indicative <br> N. B. The Present Stem marks an action as not completed.

## Indicative Mood

§86. The Gnomic Present, is the tense used to express customary action, or a general truth, and is, consequently, most commonly found in proverbial sayings.
N.B. This is the tense formerly called the 'Aorist': -

آتش دوست , دشمن نداند ا A sad-hearted man saddens the commany'.
200 'The mark of a servant is that he should آن كن:ند كا خداوند فرمايد
N. B. The Tense is, however, sometimes used instead of the actual Present:-

## Syntax

'You think that I have given myself ip ii بشراب و شیار مشغول كرد

In such usage, however, the tense usually denotes action habitually recurring in the present, or as being more or less constant.
§ 87. The Present Tense is used to denote-
(1) An action now going on, or a state now existing:-
.He is going to the place of prayer before the 'IT'.

(2) An action recurring habitually in the present:A good deed makes its way to the house of its author'.
ترا 'I 'I take you to the water and bring you back thirsty'.
(3) An action to be performed without an instant's delay:اورا هدا ميكنم 'I will call him (immediately)'.
(4) With adverbial expressions of time (or phrases of similar meaning) an action begun in the past, but continued up to the present :(He has long been asking me.
(5) What is true at all times:-
 "Who art thou?"
疮 ; A fisherman draws his net from the sea
§ 88. The Simple or 'Proximate' Future is used to denote-
(1) An action about to occur, or a state about to exist:-
(I will discover to you an important secret'.
俍 'They will open their eyes'.
. I I will not remain one moment after her'.

## The Imperative Mood

§ 89. The Imperative marks an action as demanded, and is used in three ways. The negative is usually ${ }^{-}$; but in Modern Colloquial, s:-
(1) To convey an order directly to some person who is present (آمر حِاضر) :-
 sure ').
(Look at his face and do not ask his condition'.
(2) To convey an order through E third person (أمر غأرأُ
'Let not the sword of 'Alī be sheathed'. السيهايمرا بفروشند 'Let them sell my horses'.
N.B. As will be seen this is in reality the Present Subjunctive.
(3) To convey instructions of a permanent nature (أَمر مُدأى):Always read the Qur'ān'.
Do thou ever have regard to thy own worth and dignity!'

## The Subjunctive Mood

§ 90. The Present Subjunctive is employed to denote-
(1) Alternative action or condition :-
آيد يِا نيايد 'Whether he comes or not'.
;زنده يا مُرده باشد
(2) Purpose. In such sentences this tense is used following $\sqrt{ }$ or $\dot{G}(=$ Latin $u t)$ :-
'He ordered them to carry his effects to ببرند the market-place'.
وقت است كه از رنج و عنا در 'It is time for you to cease grieving and lamenting'.
.
(3) Time, till when-following $\dot{\mathrm{L}}$-(Prospective Clause):-

تا تا دوست من اجازت ندهد 'Till my friend gives permission.
Time, as long as:-
'As long as he remains in this city'.
(4) Condition (a) where the protasis refers to a future condition the realization of which is uncertain:-

الת شها را ايتبا ببيند 'If he should see you here'.
(b) Where the statement made by the apodosis is conditional:( If I should mention all, they would of themselves make a book'.
(5) By using كاك 'would that' followed by the Present Subjunctive we form the Optative with reference to future time :-

كاش ، Would that the physician would come'.
§ 91. The Precative, used as its name implies, is closely allied to the Present Subjunctive, from the 3 rd person singular of which tense it is formed by interpolating an alif (called الفص , الفدأر) before the final letter:-

دخا , Blessings be upon that land'. N. B. بُوْواد = باد.
§92. B. Tenses formed from the Perfect Stem
N.B. The Perfect Stem marks an action as completed.
§ 93. The Preterite (ماضى or Absolute Past) is employed to denote an action completed in past time, without defining the actual time :-

آبֹ 'He arrived there in safety'.

§ 94. The Perfect (ماضى 0 (مريب Proximate Past) denotes recently completed action:-

ق قصرى را بنا كرده أ
'That man has been turned into an ape'. This tense is also used historically :-

> "Thشاهنى بود8 است 'There was once a king'.

And also to convey the meaning of habit or custom in the past:"That the Lord of the world may realize

It is also in colloquial use as an imminent future :-

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { brought it'). }
\end{gathered}
$$

N.B. In its use to denote established custom, this tense is also found with ${ }_{5}$ prefixed:(Have always remained in the service of our ancestors'.
§ 95. The Pluperfect (میاضى Remote Past) denotes action completed in past time more or less remote:-
"When they had filled up the grave with earth'.
'Your servant had never before heard '. از خوردن نقل سير شده بودند 'They had sated themselves with the dessert'.


## Various uses of the Past Tense (ol می)

§ 96. The Continuous Past (ماضى استهرازى) denotes continued action in past time:-
(He continued listening to the singing of the minstrels'.
The Imperfect Past (ماضى نا تهام) denotes incomplete action in past time:-
كتاب شاهناox را همى خواندند They were engaged in reading the Shāhnāma'.
The Habitual Past denotes habitual action in past time:(He was habitually careless in the pro( $\left.{ }^{( }\right)$tection of his dominions '.
The Recurrent Past denotes recurrent action in past time:(I kept asking every one whom I saw (successively)’.
The Potential Past denotes power or capacity for action in the past:-
局 'I could not have lifted so large a stone'.
The Volitional Past denotes willingness or desire in past time:(He wished to buy it, but the old woman فروخت فرود would not sell it'.
Obs. It must not be forgotten that these six tenses are merely differing uses of the same tense-form which results from prefixing or $\mathfrak{N}$ to the Preterite, or adding to it v .
§97. The Conditional Past (ماضى شرطى) is used in conditional sentences in which an antecedent past condition is unfulfilled:آر نمى باريد خيلى خوب مى شد 'If it had not rained it would have been very pleasant'.
If the old woman had obtained access
 to the hunting ground'.
§ 98. The Optative Past (مافى تهمّائى) is used in Optative sentences in which the desire refers to unfulfilled precedent condition:-

Would that the enemy had not been victorious'.
Obs. It will be seen that the Conditional Past and Optative Past are formed by prefixing, 'if', and 'would that' respectively to the form referred to in the preceding Observation Note.
§99. The Remote Future ['Compound Future' (Platts)]. This tense is used to denote an event or action to take place after an interval of time:-

> 'I will send a courier with him '.

Obs. This tense is comparable in structure with the Periphrastic Future in Greek :-

N.B. It should be noticed that 'I wish to write' = خى خواهم .نويسم (§57).
§100. The Perfect Subjunctive ['Future Perfect' (Platts)]. This tense which in Persian is called ماضى احتمالى 'the past of probability' is used in several senses:-
(a) To denote a conviction in the mind of the speaker as to the occurrence of a past event, or the existence of a condition in the past :-
'He must have been mad'.
'They must certainly have heard'.
(b) To denote probability of an event having occurred:-
"ركّ אوwفند , The wolf will have eaten the sheep'.
(c) To denote the passibility of an event having occurred :بِسر خود دادر باشد 'He may have given it to his son'.
(d) In Conditional Sentences where the protasis deals with an antecedent condition which is improbable or at least uncertain :آر فعلًا رفتّه باشد خبر هيش 'If he should really have gone he will باليوز فرستاده باشد

## VERB-NOUN AND VERB-ADJECTIVES

§ 101. The Infinitive is used-
(a) As Subject, as:-
(Thy death is better than the affliction of mankind '.
(b) As a Noun-equivalent, in any case, as:صنعت كشتى كرفتن a 'The art of wrestling’.
(c) As Object depending on certain Verbs, as:-位 ' When he ceases to give bread'.
(d) As one of two Objects, depending on certain Verbs, as:They would not permit him to come into the presence of the king'.
(e) The Prolative Infinitive is used to extend the meaning of certain Indeterminate Verbs, as:-
كسى نيارد ظظلم و دست درازى 'No one will dare to practise tyranny and oppression'.
 ايشان گغتن.
(f) Certain infinitives are used in forming Compound Verbs which are so common in Persian.
(g) The Apocopated Infinitive is capable of being used as an Abstract Noun; e.g. نشست 'the sitting'; برخاست 'the uprising'. In older Persian the full Infinitive is used in this manner.
§ 102. The Verb-Adjective in $v$ (called in Persian the $ك$ corresponds in one of its many uses to the Latin Gerundive marking an action as 'to be done', as :-
"The tribute to be levied from them’.
'We have done what was necessary to be done '.
This Adjective has, however, several other significations, as follows:It denotes-
(a) Propriety:-
(Such a speech is not proper to be spoken'.
(b) Fitness:-

The water of this stream is not fit to drink'.
(c) Sufficiency:-

I I have not money enough for the journey to Thihrān'.
(d) Possibility:'I am not able to be separated from thee'.
(e) Futurity :-
'For I am about to depart'.

Obs. The negative is to be formed by prefixing $\langle$ (not $\dot{x}$ ).
§ 103. This Verb-Adjective is also used as a noun, as:-
Accept this much food as a present'.
جز از رسُتنيها نكوردذد هيز (They ate nothing but plants (growing things)'.
(They had no eatables save frnit'.
(For all their clothing was of leaves'.

## THE PARTICIPLES (أسهاى مُشْتَق)

§104. A. The 'Imperfect' Participle (إسم فاعل) ending in alif is used (1) as an Adjective, (2) as a Noun, (3) Adverbially :-
(1) As an Adjective :-
'His minister was a wise man'.
'That is $\triangle$ blind man'.
(2) As a Noun:-

'And if I see that there is a blind man and a pit'.
(3) In Impersonal (Adverbial) phrases:-

§105. B. The Imperfect Statical Participle ending in is ased as a Descriptive Adjective expressing the continuance of the action expressed by the verb from which it is derived:-
, 'Whom they saw going along rumning خيزان ميرفت $\quad$ and stumbling'.

## N.B. This Participle is indeclinable.

§ 106. C. The Participle of Agency ending in 8 j - - is used as a Noun, denoting the doer of the action:جويندهُ هال هركز قانع نی شود 'The seekerafter wealth is never satisfied'.

There is a second form of this Participle, ending in $\dot{j}-$, used chiefly as a Noun:-
, A bird'. $d_{i j \geqslant}$ 'A grazing animall.
N.B. Of this latter form is the Participle مانند 'resembling'.
§ 107. D. The Perfect Participle (إسم هغعول) is used in several ways:-
(a) To form compound tenses of the Active Verb, and in the formation of the Passive Verb in all its parts :-

N.B. It must be remembered that the Perfect Participle has both an active and a passive signification, as may be required.
(b) As a 'Statical' Intransitive Participle (حاليx), thus becoming a Predicative Adjective :-
نوشته بود 'It was written'.
.Perhaps the leopard may be asleep'. خون, رئتّه بود
هوهإِيگان دويده آمدند 'The neighbours came running'. اورا خغتن افتاد8 يافتند 'They found him lying asleep'.
(c) As a 'Conjunctive' Participle ( $\omega$

كاي شنيده جواب داد 'Having heard this, he replied.
Having said this, he gave me provisions زادو بركّ بـغشيد
(d) As a Noun Substantive:-
 (He repented him of that deed.
(e) As an Adjective:-
(Be not anxious about a work you have undertaken'.
.An uncaught thief is a Sultān'.
(f) As an affix, in the formation of Compound Adjectives and Nouns:-

جبهانديدر 'Experienced'. 'Tried in war'.
ماحبزادهر 'Of good birth-a noble'.
N.B. Another less common form of the Perfect Participle, namely, that which results from the dropping of the final letter of the Infinitive without further change, is used (1) as a Noun, (2) as an Affix:-
(1) As a Noun:-
'Listen to the words of a learned man with the ear of the soul'.
(2) As an Affix, to form Compound Adjectives:-


## USES OF THE VERB-STEM

§ 108. The Present (Incomplete) Stem is used-
(1) Connected with the Perfect (Complete) Stem by a conjunction to form Compound Nouns, as :-

(2) Repeated to form Intensive Nouns, as:-

$$
9,15 \text { 'Close search'. }
$$

(3) Repeated but connected by the prohibitive ${ }^{-}$, as:كششا 'Tumult. $\quad$ 'Hesitation'.
(4) Two Stems connected by a Conjunction to form Nouns, as :-
 دار و كوب 'Pomp, pride'.
(5) Two Stems connected by alif (
应 'Bustle, hurry'.
(6) An Adverb or Preposition followed by the Present Stem is used to form Nouns:-
"A present'. ; ;يراندا 'A hukka-carpet'.
(7) A Noun or Pronoun followed by the Present Stem is used to form Adjectives:-
 خود فروش 'Conceited'.
§ 109. The Perfect (Complete) Stem is used as follows:-
(1) Two Stems in apposition are used to form Nouns, as:ش MT Tr 'Traffic'. To 'Traffic'.
(2) Two Stems connected by a Conjunction are used to form Nouns, as:-
'Dealing'.
(3) A Perfect Stem is used with a Present Stem either in apposition or connected by a Conjunction to form Nouns, as: S For $\bar{\xi}$, $\bar{\xi}$ 'Conversation'.

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## II. Persian Index



Index to Syntax


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[^0]:    HENRY FROWDE, M.A. PUBLISHER TO THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD
    LONDON, EDINBURGH, NEW YORK
    TORONTO AND MELBOURNE

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Modern Persian is the language of Persia under Islām. Pehlevī was the language of Persia under the Sassanides, and is the direct parent of Persian. Old Persian was the language of Persia under the Achemenides-the language in which the inscriptions of the monarchs of that dynasty were written; the character used was the cunciform. The sister-language of the Old Persian was the Median, or (as it is commonly, though incorrectly, called) Zend. Pehlevi is a relative noun from pahlav $=$ parthava (i.e. pehlevi $=$ parthavǐya), and means 'the language of the Parthava or Parthians'.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ From the introduction to 'The Vazīr of Lankurān', we learn that 'in the district of Fārs all $\tilde{a}$ 's become $\bar{u}$ '. Thus, instead of $m \bar{z}-d \bar{a} n \bar{a} d$ ' do you know' they say mī-dūnid. And certain words all over Persia are pronounced
     hamün for hamän is another example of this. The same change of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{u}$ occurs in the verbs, $v . \| 78$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is supposed by some to be the original of the Indian title 'Nawāb'. It seems more probable, however, that the original is jowwāb, an
     by lightening, becomes nawäb, which the illiterate have corrupted to nabab ; whence our ' Nabob ' .

[^4]:    d Cf. ‘ Full many $\mathbb{I}$ gem of purest ray serene
    The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.'

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the spoken language of the present day, the $y$, together with its
    

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mirza Habīb of Isfahān, in his Dabistān-i-Pārsī, says on this subject :-
    
    

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Phl. apar $=$ O.P. upariy. $\quad$ Pāz. pa; Phl. pat $=$ O.P. patiy. $\quad$ ba, q.v. $+r a \bar{u} e=$ Phl. rai = O.P. rādiy (cf. rā, § 30, Rem.). $\quad$ Pāz. awē; Phl. apē $=$
     (whence, also, $l_{\substack{ }}=$ Phl. jutāk). $\quad 7$ O.P. and Z. frā- for fra (cf. S. prā- for pra, as in prä-kara). $\quad{ }^{8}$ Andar, q.v. + suff. ūn = Z. -aona, prim. avana (cf. F'arīdūn $=\mathrm{Z}$. Thraētaona $). \quad{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{Phl}$. berūn $=$ prim. apera $($ apaya $+\mathrm{rt} . a r)+$ avana.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Phl. pēsh = O.P. patish. + suff. ūn. $\quad{ }^{3}$ Phl. $a z$ bar. $\quad{ }^{4}$ Phl. $a z \bar{e} r=a z+\bar{e} r=$ Z. adhairi 'under'. ${ }^{5}$ Phl. frāj $=$ O.P. frāch (fra $\left.+\mathrm{rt} . a c h\right) . \quad$ Phl. frot $=$ prim. fravatā.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ Phl. bālā ; Z. bareza ; O.P. (prob.) barda. ${ }^{\quad}$ Phl. var $=$ Z. vara. ${ }^{3}$ Z. $\bar{\alpha}$, which was used as an independent prep. as well as a prefix (cf. S. $\bar{a}$ ). ${ }^{4}$ Phl. bahr = Z. badhra : (cf. S. bhadra). $\quad{ }^{5} \mathrm{Phl}$, pusht $=$ Z. parshti. $\quad{ }^{6} \mathrm{Phl}$. pahlūke = Z. peresu (S. pārsva). ${ }^{7}$ O.P. padiy (S. padē). "Pāzend j̄̄ā, fr. prim, $x$ t. $y \bar{a}$ 'to go', $\quad{ }^{9}$ Phl. dar $=0 . \mathrm{P} . d u v a r \bar{a}(\mathrm{~S} . d w a \overline{r a}) . \quad{ }^{10} \mathrm{Phl}$. dumb $(=$ Z. duma $)+$ suff. $\bar{a}{ }^{2}$.
    ${ }^{11} \mathrm{Phl}$. rās ; Z. raithyā.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Phl. rōd = Z. raodha. $\quad{ }^{2}$ Phl. sar = Z sarah..$\quad$ Phl. süle = prim.
    sūka? "Phl. cart = prim, varta. $\quad{ }^{5}$ Phl. miyān = Z. maidhyana (S. madhyama). "Phl. nazd(ik); Z. nuzita. ${ }^{7}$ Phl. êvar; Pāzend āwar, êvarīh; prim. adi $+\operatorname{varī}$ (rt. var). ${ }^{8}$ ham + mānā; Phl, humānãk. ${ }^{\circ}$ Pāz. na $=$ O.P. $n a$; Z. $n a, n \bar{\alpha} . \quad{ }^{10}$ Pāz. $n \bar{e}=$ O.P. naiy. $\quad{ }^{11}$ Pāz. $m a=$ O.P. $m \bar{u}$. ${ }^{12}$ Indef. and, q.v. + demonstr. é, q.v. + conj. ki. ${ }^{13} 3$ p. sing. of anr. of shäyistan.

[^11]:    1 Phl．$a s w a ̄ r=$ O．P．$\quad$ asa－băra（ $=a s s a-b \bar{a} r a=a s v a-b \bar{a} r a=a s p a-b \bar{a} r a: \quad$ cf． S ． aswa－wāra）．${ }^{2}$ Phl．anāk $\bar{\alpha} s \bar{s} h \bar{\alpha} '$ unperceived＇；Z．an－$k k c \bar{s} a$（cf．S．an $+\bar{\alpha} k \bar{\alpha} s ' a$ ）． －Phl，nēvak，fr．O．P．naiba．${ }^{4}$ Indef．pron．har，q．v．＋Phl，āyīnak，ād̄̄nak （prep． $\bar{a}+d \bar{\imath} n=$ Z．daena，rt．$d \bar{\alpha} i-:$ S．$d h \bar{\alpha} \bar{i}$ ）．．$\quad{ }^{5}$ Phl．ham $=0$ ．P．ham（cf． S．sam）．© Phl．afzūn，fr．afzū－dan．${ }^{7}$ See § 67，13）a．Phl． $\tan (=$ Z． $\tan \bar{u} ;$ cf．S． $\tan u)+$ suff．$\hbar \bar{\alpha} . \quad{ }^{9}$ See § 66．$\quad 10$ Phl．kam $=$

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 118. Vahār = O.P. vahāra (cf. S. vasära) +adv. suff. an.
    ${ }^{3}$ Pāz. pagäh $=$ O.P. upa + gäthu. $\quad$ PhI. der; O.P. darga; Z. daregha (cf. S.
    dirgha): derh $\bar{\alpha}=$ der + adv. guff. $h \bar{\alpha} . \quad{ }^{5}$ See footnote on § 67, 9) a. V Razz
    (see 1) + adv. suff. an $a=$ Phl. -ānak, fr. O.P. -äna. ${ }^{7}$ Phi. zūt; prob. fr.
    prim. jūtu, rt. jut 'to move quickly' (cf. S. junta, rt. jus).

[^13]:     O.P. dūraiy, loco, of dūra 'far' (cf. S. dūre). ${ }^{\text {s }}$ Pāz. kū ; PhI. ka-, or ku-; Z. $k \bar{u}{ }^{\prime}$ where?' (cf. S. $k w a$ ) : kuj $\bar{a}=k \bar{u}+j \bar{a}$ 'place'. ${ }^{4}$ Phi. $\bar{u}$; O.P. ut $\bar{a}$
     (origin obscure) $+v=$ O.P. $v \bar{a}$ 'or'. ${ }^{\prime}$ From Ar. lākin, by imāla, vo 6, Rem. c. $\quad{ }^{8} \mathrm{Phl} . h a-k a r=$ O.P. ha-karam 'once';-agarchi $=$ PhI. hakarch $i=$ O.P. hakaram-chiy; and from the same source is derived the Persian hargiz :magar $=$ neg. $m a+$ gar, for agar.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ Etudes Iraniennes, § 225.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ The passive sense of this suffix seems, says Darmesteter (E.I., § 233. $2^{\circ}$ ), to be modern creation. There is no trace of it either in Zend or in Sanskrit.

[^16]:    It should be noted that, m the VIIth conjugation is inherently passive, it cannot logically form the active participle, which, however, is commonly used, but retains the passive sense of the conjugation.

[^17]:    - The principal verb-forms of modern Persian are derived from the O.P. through the Phl., or are created after the analogy of those so derived. Much

[^18]:    1 It should be observed that in Persian the order of the persons is the same as that of Latin, Ego et rex meus. Thus we find the following :Man va Imperātor qadrī şụ̂bat kardīm 'I and the Emperor talked together for 1 while'.

[^19]:    1 In the modern colloquial idiom the imperative is often preceded by the word $\mathrm{s}^{\bar{\circ}}$, which is an interjection answering to the English hollo! there! e.g. g.

